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The Practical Gas Engineer

The Practical Gas Engineer

*A Manual of Practical Gas and
Gasoline Engine Knowledge*

For the Gas and Gasoline En-
gine Owner, Engineer or any
one wishing Plain and Practical
Information on this style motor

Covering Errors to be avoided
in the Construction of, and
How to Erect, Operate and care
for Gas and Gasoline Engines
and Motors of Every Type.

Ninth Edition
Revised and Enlarged

BY

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Gift Mrs #T Bradley

PREFACE

Having many times in the past felt the need of some book that could be placed into the hands of the busy gas and gasoline engineer for the purpose of aiding him quickly to overcome the apparently mysterious troubles that often arise with these engines or motors, the author has for a number of years, during his extensive travels as an expert for one of the oldest and leading gas engine concerns in America, collected such data in reference to CONSTRUCTION, EQUIPMENT and GAS ENGINE TROUBLES as are of special interest to the PROSPECTIVE PURCHASER, the ATTENDANT, or any one wishing to post himself thoroughly on the management, care, operation and selection of a gas or gasoline engine or motor.

The data thus gathered and compiled in this book covers practically all the questions that arise from the purchaser's, owner's and engineer's standpoint.

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It is the author's intention that it shall be a ready reference most valuable to all persons interested in modern gas and gasoline engines, and especially to the busy engineer, in cases of emergency where his engine refuses to operate successfully and the cause of the trouble is difficult to locate.

In handling the various subjects the author has endeavored to studiously avoid the theoretical, and adhere strictly, in as brief a manner as possible, to the practical questions concerning the purchase and handling of gas and gasoline engines.

I have reason to believe that this book will save many a gas engine owner, not only much time and money that without it would be expended on repairs, but that it will also save him much mental worry and make him and his engine closer friends.

If it does either it will have attained its purpose.

THE AUTHOR.

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MISCELLANEOUS

PART I.

DESCRIPTIVE AND HISTORICAL

1. THE GAS ENGINE may be defined as a Motor or Prime Mover which derives its power from the Combustion, within its cylinder, of a mixture of gas and air in the proper proportion to form an explosive.
2. The COMBUSTION or burning of this charge of gas and air is occasioned under a close or heavy compression, a result of the inward movement of the piston after the charge is admitted and all valves closed. The result of igniting this mixture under the heavy compression is what is commonly called an explosion, which is nothing more than a quick burning or rapid combustion of the mixture.
3. This explosion causes suddenly a high degree of heat within the cylinder, behind the piston, which heat results in a great EXPANSIVE FORCE, creating an initial pressure against the piston of something near 300 pounds to the square inch. This drives the piston rapidly and forcibly on its outward movement, which, connected to the fly wheels by means of pitman and crank shaft, imparts to them their revolving motion and consequent power.

4. FUEL—A number of combustible products are well adapted to be used as fuel in a gas engine.
5. The most commonly employed are Natural and Artificial Gas, Gasoline, Kerosene, Distillate, Alcohol, etc.
6. These products are known as Hydro-Carbons, and may be considered products of Coal, Vegetables, Water and Crude Mineral Oil.
7. This type of motor is variously called Gas Engine, Gasoline Engine, Hydro-Carbon Engine, Internal Combustion Engine, Naphtha Engine, Kerosene Engine and Explosive Engine. It is entirely proper to call an engine that employs gasoline for fuel a Gas engine. A Gasoline engine is practically a Gas engine. All Hydro-Carbon engines are known also as Gas engines.
8. Gasoline, kerosene, alcohol, etc., atomized or vaporized with the current of air simply forms a gas, and is transformed as such into power. It is liquid only on the outside but gas on the inside of the cylinder. So with all the other fluids named. Therefore all the liquid fuels employed in these engines must be by some method first transformed into gas before they are useful.
9. BIRTH OF THE GAS ENGINE—As early as 1680 Huyghens suggested the use of gunpowder in an explosive engine. This suggestion engaged the attention of other minds.

10. M. Beau de Rochas advocated a Four-Cycle idea in 1862. But the real practical demonstration which proved that the gas engine could be made a success was made by Lenoir in 1860, and Hugon, Siemens, Boulton, Crosley and Dr. Otto a few years later designed engines that proved the gas engine a success beyond a doubt.

11. FOUR CYCLE and OTTO CYCLE are used synonymously, meaning that an engine completes a Cycle in Four (4) acts, or that it requires four (4) movements of the piston to complete a Cycle, as follows:

1st—On the outward movement of the piston a charge of gas and air is drawn into the cylinder. In other words, inhaled.

2nd—On the inward movement, the valves being closed, the charge is compressed in the rear end of the cylinder.

3rd—At the beginning of the working stroke Explosion and Expansion of the charge under the heaviest compression pressure causes the next outward movement.

4th—The second inward movement, with the exhaust valve open, exhausts the burnt gases.

12. Therefore two revolutions of the fly wheels are necessary to complete one cycle, consisting of an Inhalation, Compression, Expansion and Exhaust.

13. All Gas Engines are not built on the

Four-Cycle plan. There are many Two-Cycle engines now on the market. But the Four-Cycle engine up to the present has been a great favorite over the Two-Cycle with both the manufacturer and user, except in the service of propelling light motor boats, where the Two-Cycle has the lead.

14. This is so partly because there are fewer obstructions to be overcome in manufacturing a successful four-cycle, in consequence of which the manufacturers have given more attention to perfecting and simplifying that cycle, and inasmuch as they are meeting the requirements of power users, and are favored with a ready market, they do not care to leave it for the two cycle problem.
15. A TWO-CYCLE engine, of course, must be differently constructed from a four-cycle. There must be two compression chambers, either in the shape of two cylinders or one cylinder with both ends closed, or the crank chamber may be tightly encased and used as a compression chamber. THE TWO COMPRESSION CHAMBERS are necessary because in a two-cycle engine a charge of gas and air must be received by the engine somewhere at the same time the previous charge is being compressed ready for explosion.
16. As before stated, two cylinders, placed side by side, with their pistons moving in opposite directions at the same time, and with their compression chambers connected

with an admission port and valve, will cover the requirements of a two-cycle. The more simple arrangement of making one cylinder and piston serve the same purpose is most desirable.

17. To make its operation clear, I will take for an illustration the single cylinder two-cycle engine, using the air-tight crank case or chamber for a receiving, mixing and compression chamber.
18. The casting is so made that when the engine is completed the pitman and crank are completely enclosed and work in this air-tight chamber. You can easily understand that if it were not for the piston this chamber and the cylinder would be one continuous, irregular, enclosed space. The piston, however, working in the cylinder, divides the space into two chambers, the cylinder proper and the crank chamber.
19. To the crank chamber there must be an admission port and valve to receive the charges. From the crank chamber to the cylinder there must be a side passage to carry the charge from the crank space into the cylinder. From the cylinder to the outside there must be an exhaust port or valve.
20. NOW NOTICE THE ACTION OF THIS ARRANGEMENT. When the piston moves back into the cylinder it acts as a suction pump to the crank chamber, and

if the admission valve were closed it would create a partial vacuum in the crank space. But the admission valve is opened on this inward stroke of the piston and admits a properly mixed charge of gas and air. As the piston moves out toward the crank space it compresses this charge to the end of its stroke, where a valve or port is opened and the compression pressure, in the crank chamber, forces the charge through the side passage, into the cylinder behind the piston. Now, when the piston moves on its inward stroke it compresses the charge behind it, and at the same time draws another into the crank chamber.

21. The compressed charge in the cylinder is exploded just as the piston starts again on its outward stroke. The expansive force of the explosion drives the piston with a rapid movement to the end of its outward stroke when the exhaust port is opened, and the burnt gases are let out into the open air. Just after the exhaust port opens and the exploded charge is leaving the cylinder the compressed charge from the crank chamber comes rushing in from the other side.
22. Therefore the exploding cylinder is always receiving a fresh charge at the same time it is exhausting the exploded one. In other words, emptying out the old on one side through the exhaust port and filling

up at the same instant on the other side from the crank chamber.

23. A Two-Cycle engine on each inward movement compresses a fresh charge in the cylinder behind the piston and receives another into the crank chamber. It also explodes a charge and receives an impulse at every revolution.

PART II.

CONSTRUCTION

24. Parts necessary to the proper construction of a Gas Engine are Cylinder, Base or Bed Plate, Piston and Piston Rings, Connecting Rod or Pitman, Crank Shaft, Fly Wheels and Belt Pulley, Receiving and Exhaust Valves, Igniting Device and Governor, Oiler, Carbureter, Screws, Pins, Nuts, Bolts, Springs, Levers, etc.
25. A cylinder head and water jacket might be included, although the cylinder head in some engines is continuous with the walls of the cylinder, and consequently a part of it. The cooling, for which purpose the water jacket serves, may be done otherwise, as with spinous projections cast around and contiguous with the cylinder wall.
26. CYLINDER—In writing on construc-

tion the Four-Cycle engine only will be considered.

27. A Cylinder is made of gray iron castings, with either one or both ends open. If both ends are open a cylinder head is fitted onto one end so as to close it. The cylinder is usually cast with water jacket, although the water jacket may be cast separate and fit onto the cylinder. Exhaust and receiving valve ports are cast into the head or onto the sides of one end of the cylinder.
28. So far as the success or failure of a valve is concerned, location of its port has very little to do with it so long as it opens into the compression chamber. That location is usually selected where it is believed to be most convenient to operate the movements of the valve.
29. Both end and side port valves are used very successfully. A number of successful engines have their valve ports on the top and bottom of the cylinder, if of the horizontal pattern.
30. Many small engines have the base and cylinder cast in one piece. Other cylinders have lugs, brackets or rests cast on them, which are fitted to a similar casting on the base by means of stud bolts and nuts, and are therefore bolted on.
31. On small, light weight engines where combined cylinder and base castings are used and easily handled there can be no reasonable ex-

cuse offered against the plan.

32. It is argued by some builders that in case of a break to either cylinder or bed only one need be supplied to repair the break, but the increased amount of machine work and time spent in detaching the old piece and putting on the new about offsets their argument. In cost of repairs there is very little difference.
33. The metal in the walls of the cylinder should be of uniform thickness in its entire circumference and from one end to the other, so as to allow equal expansion and contraction throughout.
34. The bore of the cylinder should be as nearly perfect as machinery, handled by a careful and skilled mechanic, can make it. The igniting end of the interior of the cylinder should be smooth and free from projections or sharp corners. The valve ports should be of ample capacity to allow easy admission and free exhaust. Cylinder walls should be from $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thickness in a 5-inch cylinder to $\frac{3}{4}$ or 1 inch in a 12-inch cylinder. The metal in the walls should be free from sand holes, so as to prevent water leaking into the cylinder.
35. The base or bedplate, as its name implies, is the support of all the working parts of the engine, and should be so designed as to be sufficiently strong at all points where a special strain is liable to be exerted. The

base is the support for the cylinder and fly wheels, and should be so arranged as to carry these in the most simple, convenient, efficient and compact manner.

36. In small engines it is desirable to have the base of sufficient height to clear the fly wheels, so that when the engine is placed on the floor the fly wheel may turn clear by an inch or two.
37. In larger engines, where it is desirable to keep down the weight, for convenience in handling, a sub-base may be substituted.
38. The least carelessness in the construction of the crank or journal boxes determines a partial or complete failure of the engine.
39. The edges, or rather the inner edges of the boxes should be so dressed as to just admit the crank without practically any end play, and in a position to bring the center of the crank pin exactly in line with the center of the cylinder.
40. The brass or babbitt bearing should be so put in as to insure the center of the CRANK PIN in its entire stroke to be in exact LINE with the center of the cylinder. In other words, the boxes must hold the crank shaft at perfect right angles to the cylinder centers.
41. The brass or babbitt bearings should always be strictly of the best material obtainable for the purpose. The least variation

from perfect alignment is faulty construction.

42. THE PISTON should be from 1-1200 to 1-300 in. smaller in diameter than the cylinder, according to diameter of the cylinder. It should be a close gray iron casting, free from sand holes. It should be of the drum-shaped variety, closed at one end and open at the other to receive the wrist or crosshead end of the pitman or connecting rod.
43. The crosshead lugs which carry the pin to which the pitman is connected should be located near the center of the piston length. If anything, a little nearer the open than the closed end. It is bad practice to carry the weight necessary to construct a proper crosshead with the weight of the pin and part of the pitman too near the rear end of the piston.
44. There is no rule governing the length and weight of a piston. Each manufacturer constructs a piston of length and weight after his own ideas. The tendency in stationary engine construction is to make them extremely long, which necessarily makes them too heavy to be of the best service.
45. The longer and heavier a piston the more friction in the cylinder, and consequently the more power is required to move it, and the more work will be thrown on the crank

boxes and shaft in reversing it, which imparts an end motion to the entire engine that is difficult to balance.

46. I favor a piston of medium length, not too long nor extremely short. An upright engine admits of a shorter piston than a horizontal, because a horizontal engine carries the weight of its piston on the cylinder walls; and the longer the piston the less damaging is the wear to the cylinder. The weight is distributed over more surface.
47. An upright engine carries its piston weight principally on the crank shaft, and therefore should be as light and short as the force, with which it has to deal, will allow.
48. The Rings on the Piston serve to prevent the escape of the expansive force past the piston, which is necessarily somewhat smaller, so as to allow its free and easy movement in the cylinder.
49. The packing rings are made larger than the cylinder. A piece from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 inch in length is cut out, so that when the end of the rings are pressed together it reduces the diameter of the ring to that of the cylinder, but leaves an outward spring to the ring.
50. After cutting a piece out of a perfect ring and pressing the ends together, it will make an oval shaped instead of a perfect ring, and consequently it can not fit a perfect cylinder. After the ring is cut the ends

should be pressed together and again turned to a perfect ring, on the outside at least. It is to be regretted that all manufacturers do not follow this rule in making their rings.

51. An oval-shaped ring will wear the walls of the cylinder at two opposite points only, which will soon conform itself more or less to the shape of the ring.
52. Such rings also fail to serve their purpose by allowing the expansive force to pass the piston. It is as important to a purchaser to know how the packing rings are made as to know that the journal boxes are in exact line from every point with the cylinder.
53. He should always ask an agent or manufacturer who is trying to sell him an engine this question: How are piston rings made? And if they do not make a plain answer, or if they seem to evade the question, it is just as well for the purchaser to give that engine no further consideration. Because if a manufacturer is careless with his cylinder rings and journal boxes he is liable to be careless with every part of his engine.
54. The cylinder rings and journal boxes are not the only safe guides to a purchaser. As we go along with these points on construction you will see that the purchaser will find many things to open his eyes. It is intended to make this little book the purchaser's friend as well as the men who have charge of an engine. If the purchaser were

more exacting in his requirements the manufacturer would build him a better engine, and a portion of the gas engine trouble would cease.

55. A purchaser's suspicion may be aroused that a ring is not properly made if there is a coughing noise and smoke coming out of the open end of the cylinder at each explosion of a charge. If by drawing out the piston he finds the rings are bearing and worn only at the cut and at a point opposite, he can rest assured that the rings were not turned after cutting. But the ring may be good and the cylinder may have a larger bore at one end than at the other, therefore look out for an imperfect cylinder as well as imperfect rings.
56. PITMAN OR CONNECTING ROD—Very few gas engine builders use the slides or crosshead guides as used in the steam engines. The pitman is generally connected one end to the crank shaft, the other direct to the piston. It is made of steel casting or steel forging. The latter is less liable to defects, and therefore more desirable.
57. It should be centered, turned and made as light as possible, with ample strength to carry the power transmitted through it. The center lines of the crossheads and crank-pin boxes, which are usually made of brass, should be at exact right angles to the center line of the connecting rod.

58. The plan of attaching the crankpin boxes to the connecting rod, by means of two steel bolts, is probably the most convenient and satisfactory method of attaching these boxes.
59. Owing to the slight motion required at the wrist many builders consider a simple bushing amply sufficient, although some are using bearings such as the strap and key variety or one similar to the crankpin boxes.
60. CRANK SHAFT.—The question of crank shaft construction is a very important one. The center line of the crank pin should be exactly parallel with the center line of the crank shaft. The least variance from this necessarily makes a bad running engine.
61. I have found crank pins in boxes, that were constantly running hot, not only out of line with their shaft, but also of different diameter at the ends, one end of the pin being considerably larger in diameter than the other. One or the other of the defects here mentioned is usually the cause of a constantly HOT RUNNING crank box.
62. Improper lining of the crank with the cylinder, or the crank pin boxes fastened on the connecting rod out of line, are faults that should not be overlooked.
63. The arms of the crank shaft should be of exactly the same thickness, so as to bring

the crank pin in such a position that the center line of the cylinder will divide it into two exact halves in every part of the entire length of its stroke.

64. LENGTH AND DIAMETER OF CRANK PIN.—The best rule to follow is to make the working area of the crank pin so that there is no more than 400 pounds average pressure to the square inch. Whether you secure this area by a long slim pin or a short thick pin does not matter much, provided extremes are avoided and journal boxes are of suitable length. Builders generally agree that the diameter of the pin should be from 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ times that of the shaft.
65. The length of the journal boxes should be not less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the diameter of the shaft.
66. CRANK SHAFT DIAMETERS.—No uniform rule is followed. But gas engine crank shaft diameters in America compare very favorably with a rule based upon cylinder diameter and maximum pressure within the cylinder. The average diameters run a little “shy” of the rule.
67. WEIGHT AND DIAMETER OF FLY WHEELS.—Very much depends on the speed of the engine as to weight that should be carried. At a medium speed, which may be based on about 225 revolutions for 25 h. p. to 375 for a 2 h. p. single cylinder engine,

one hundred pounds to the horse power will not be very far out of the way. The diameter may range from 28 in. on the small engine to 60 in. on the larger size. The weight above referred to, of course, is divided between the two wheels. High speed automobile and motor boat engines, of course, carry a much lighter wheel.

68. **BALANCING A SINGLE CYLINDER ENGINE.**—This is a subject that is not so easily disposed of as it might appear. The majority of manufacturers simply use a weight in the rim of the fly wheels directly opposite the arms and crank pin on the crank shaft, or, what is practically the same thing, they core out the rim at a point directly opposite from that where the weight should otherwise be.
70. Some builders think the crank shaft is the proper place to attach the balance weights.
71. Our experience with the different methods of balancing leads us to favor the counter weights on the crank shaft arms, either in the form of slotted discs with the weight in the proper place, or in the shape of half-moon weights.
72. These weights or discs are secured to the crank shaft arms by means of suitable bolts so that their weight hangs opposite the center line of the shaft from that of the crank arms and crank pin.

73. A pump or an air compressor in connection with a gas engine is an excellent combination. Unfortunately not every one who has use for a gas engine has need of a pump or compressor. But you can "whack the nail squarely on the head" by making a double cylinder engine with one cylinder on each end of the engine base and a double throw crank shaft in the center, so that both pistons move away from and towards each other at the same time.
74. This is known as the DOUBLE OPPOSED engine and it is becoming quite a favorite with many operators, especially for mounted service such as is required in portable traction, motor boat, motor truck and railway car power plants. In our opinion the single cylinder gas engine must necessarily lose consideration for mounted service because of this difficulty in securing a really serviceable and reliable balance that will effectively overcome the vibrations due to the quick to-and-fro movements of a single heavy piston, connecting rod and crank shaft. The double opposed engine comes in here with its special advantages of practically a perfect balance, light in weight, and with a longitudinal, instead of a vertical power thrust, which is considered by many operators much more preferable, because of the racking vertical vibrations so noticeable in multiple cylinder vertical engines used in au-

tomobiles when under a high rate of speed. While the single cylinder engine has almost an unlimited field of usefulness in localized and stationary service and the multiple cylinder vertical engine will rule rapid transit vehicles where the maximum power with minimum weight is the principal consideration, the double opposed horizontal engine may claim with equal propriety the intermediate field between localized and rapid transit service.

75. VALVES.—The ordinary four-cycle engine usually has three valves, the exhaust valve, the receiving valve and the fuel valve. The exhaust and receiving valves are generally placed at a point on the cylinder head so that their ports lead directly into the igniting or exploding chamber. These valves are usually of the mushroom type, and are operated by means of suitable levers in connection with the cams on a revolving side rod, or by a punch rod from a cog gear driven by the crank shaft.
76. As to the manner of operating these valves, I think the advantages are in favor of the side rod on the engines of the single cylinder horizontal type and with the encased gear and cam rod mechanism on the vertical type of engines.
77. The principal reason for this distinction is that it is more desirable to have the valve stem work in a vertical or upright than in

a horizontal position. If a valve stem works in a vertical position the weight of the valve brings it squarely into its seat, and the wear on the seat, valve and stem are likely to be uniform at all points. But if the valve is so placed as to move in a horizontal position the weight of the valve pallet has a tendency to wear the stem and seat on their under side only, and therefore liable to soon cause trouble. In the double opposed and multiple cylinder engines the valve pallets are much lighter in their construction and their weight, carried in special sleeves and cages, becomes a minor consideration.

78. The valve chambers or cages can be bolted to a horizontal cylinder in a vertical position and operated by suitable levers acted on by cams on the side rod. While on the vertical type of engine the valves are adjusted to the cylinder in a vertical manner directly over the cam shaft or gear, which operates them with a direct acting mechanism.
79. You will notice, I say, the valve chambers should be bolted or adjusted to the cylinder. They should not be cast on. My advice to any one purchasing is to shun an engine where valve chambers, containing the valve seats, can not be replaced by new ones. Valve seats are liable to wear out and crack by the continual wear and high heat to which they are subjected. The valve pallet and its seat

should also be in such a position as to be easy of access. They need to be examined and cleaned occasionally. The cage type of valve solves the difficulty.

80. The exhaust valve on large engines should be watered, otherwise its seat and pallet is soon liable to give way under the excessive heat. The cold charges entering at the receiving valve serve as a cooler for it.
81. A valve mechanism may be so designed as to use alternately either gas or gasoline as fuel, but not both at the same time. A valve or set of valves may be arranged so as to shut off one and turn on the other, thus changing fuels without stopping the engine. This is resorted to in such instances where kerosene or alcohol is the running fuel and gasoline the starting fuel by reason of its more ready vaporizing quality.
82. The blending or conjunctive use of two distinct fuels is another proposition altogether. The two fuels are of a different chemical composition, and the blending of their elements with a volume of air so as to make a ready explosive would be extremely difficult, and therefore impractical to attempt their combination or use in conjunction or at the same time.
83. To go into the details of describing the various fuel valve mechanisms now used would require more space than could be allowed in this little work. Each builder

claims some superior point of merit in his method of feeding the fuel, but it should not be forgotten that other reliable builders may have other points as good. It may be sufficient to say that the gas valves, and their operating mechanism, are generally so arranged as to open the valves when the outward movement of the piston is drawing a current of air into the cylinder, and partly by the force of the gas pressure and partly by the suction produced by the piston the gas is admitted to the current of air and mixes with it as it enters the cylinder.

84. Gasoline valves and carbureters and their methods of handling fuel are a little more complicated, but in most cases it is the current of air, also, by its suction power, that draws sufficient gasoline from a needle point or atomizer to charge the air current. In some instances the gasoline is forced into the air current by means of a small pump. Some kerosene engines take a charge of air only, and after compressing it, the kerosene is sprayed into the compression space and immediately fired.
85. A purchaser needs to familiarize himself with the function of the gas valve or carbureter on his engine and its method of feeding the fuel. It requires only a little close attention and common sense to learn in half an hour all that is necessary to know

about the feeding and regulating the fuel to the engine.

86. The fuel may be properly fed and regulated, and yet the engine refuse to go. Therefore the fellow who uses common sense enough to learn the proper feeding of gasoline or fuel will get into trouble if he concludes that he has learned it all. This is just the position in which I have found many a fellow. And this brings us to that mechanical part of the engine which probably is more often the source of trouble than all others combined, and that is the IGNITING MECHANISM.
87. The reader is, no doubt somewhat familiar with the two principal methods of ignition, namely, the HOT TUBE and the ELECTRIC SPARK method. The fellow with common sense about getting his fuel fed just right must also know whether he has a sufficient spark or tube hot enough to fire the charge of fuel. HOT TUBE ignition is nearly a thing of the past.
88. In the electric spark method, which is in greatest favor at this time, it is necessary to have a spark of sufficient intensity to ignite the charge, and it must be made at just the right time.
89. There are two kinds of spark used now, which are known as the Contact Spark and the Jump Spark. The latter is used more particularly in high speed engines or automot-

bile work, the former in stationary engines, to which we especially refer in the first half of this work.

90. The contact spark is made by starting an electric current and then instantly breaking it. If a battery or other source of electricity is connected up properly with two wires, one end of each wire attached to the battery, one to the positive and the other to the negative pole, the battery remains practically inactive so long as these wires do not come in contact with each other. But the moment the two loose ends of the wires are brought in contact with each other a current of electricity is made or started over these wires. Contact of the terminals, then, is known as making the current. The parting of the terminals is breaking the current.
91. If a spark coil is connected into this circuit, whenever the terminals are parted an electric spark or flash is made, which does the igniting of the charge. The terminals or contact making points, therefore, are not necessarily the ends of the wires, but any piece of metal to which the ends of the wires may be attached.
92. The current can be carried any reasonable distance over metal that is a good conductor or carrier of electricity. Of course, it is always necessary before a current is made that there is a contact of the terminals or

a connection between positive and negative poles.

93. The electric terminals or contact points are, therefore, necessarily in the igniting chamber of the engine, and at least one of them must be insulated from that part of the cylinder wall through which it passes.
94. In the construction of the sparking apparatus I think it is best to use platinum for the terminals or contact points on account of its quality to withstand a high degree of heat, although some manufacturers use common steel or gray iron points with a view to frequently and cheaply renewing them.
95. The insulation of one of these terminals should be complete, practically indestructible and proof against heat and moisture.
96. The best material for insulating purposes is lava, porcelain, mica and glass. If melted or fused properly around the terminal sleeve I regard glass much better than the others. A successful and effective insulation may be made with either of the others, although probably not as durable.
97. The mechanism that operates the movable point or terminal should be so designed that the contact will be of short duration, that the break or separation can be easily timed so as to make the spark earlier or later, that the terminals always remain separated between the act of sparking, and so as to

make a contact when the engine receives a charge.

98. The movable contact point should approach the stationary gradually, press it firmly and separate instantly. This is known as the Touch spark or Make and Break method. A wiping spark is made by what is known as a wipe contact, which is used by some builders.
99. The spark is indirectly controlled by the governor on some engines. Usually the governor controls the exhaust or receiving valve movement, and this valve movement is made to incite the movement of the sparking mechanism only when a charge is taken into the cylinder. On other engines no attempt is made to govern the number of sparks at all, but a regular succession of sparks occurs whether the governor admits a charge or not.
100. GOVERNORS.—There are a number of different types of governors in use among the gas engine builders. The most common are the fly wheel governor, the pendulum governor, and the centrifugal or ball governor. The latter is probably the most popular and effective. However, the others operate quite satisfactorily.
101. No governor of the hit and miss pattern should act sluggishly, but should be sensitive enough to avoid two charges in succession when the engine is running without a

load. One impulse should be sufficient to drive the engine over from one to five misses, owing to the speed of the engine. The lower the speed the fewer number of impulses allowed by the governor on an empty running engine. The higher the speed the more impulses.

A governor that can not be made to throw off the succeeding charge after an impulse on an empty running engine should be rejected.

102. To be more explicit, a hit and miss governor that allows an empty engine two, three, four or five impulses in succession, and then throws off as many or more, certainly can not be recommended unless it can be adjusted to do its work properly.
103. A good governor will handle an empty engine at, say, three hundred revolutions per minute, one on and two off. In other words, one impulse and two or three idle strokes. At two hundred revolutions, four or five idle strokes to each impulse.
104. Of course, you understand a governor that operates on the proportional charge, or throttling plan, allows continuous and successive impulses, light or heavy, according to the load on the engine, by throttling the mixture of gas and air.
105. I consider the throttling governor a success. It is generally conceded by builders that the hit and miss governor is the most

economical in fuel consumption, but I do not regard it necessarily so. The American inventor, if he has not already done so, will build a carbureter that will admit the fuel in such exact proportions as to give the proper strength to the impulses to carry a uniform speed under a variable load, and at the same time use only the amount of fuel necessary, and therefore reduce the fuel consumption to the minimum.

106. There can be no question of the advantage the throttling governor has over the hit and miss governor in point of steady power. The principal objection to the hit and miss governor is the variable speed it imparts to the engine.

PART III.

EQUIPMENT.

107. **SETTING THE ENGINE.**—Many purchasers fail with the gas engine because of their desire to install it with the least expense possible.
108. This is a great mistake. After buying a gas engine one should go to the expense of installing it properly.
109. If the engine is stationary it should have a tight room, all to itself, free from dust and with plenty of light.

110. Too frequently we find purchasers placing their gas engines in some dark corner of the building or in some old damp cellar that has been abandoned on account of its unfit condition to be used for any other purpose. They argue that if "I can use it for my engine I save space, and, therefore, economize." This is surely false economy.
111. I insist that if the purchaser decides to use such abandoned space in which to locate his engine he would at least save time and money by going to the expense of partitioning the space off into a room large enough for the engine, and keep on until he has transformed his engine room into the snuggest, neatest, cleanest and most convenient spot about his building, and then see that it is kept in that condition. Why not? The engine is surely the head of his machinery plant, from which he expects to derive a profit. When the engine stands idle all his machinery is idle. He can make his engine a source of profit or loss just as he will give it good or bad treatment.
112. THE FOUNDATION should be in keeping with everything that is good and substantial. Bolting the engine fast to "any old floor" is bad practice. But, alas! Gas Engines are advertised to set anywhere, on any floor or in any cellar. There are foolish advertisers as well as foolish purchasers. A careful purchaser will not buy of a reck-

less or careless advertiser who makes unreasonable or extravagant claims for his engine.

113. I would have every gas engine purchaser figure on a stone or brick and cement foundation if it is at all possible. If nothing but a floor location can be had I should recommend good heavy timbers bolted to the floor, of sufficient length to strengthen the floor for a considerable distance around the engine, then bolt the engine to these timbers.
114. The only object in a foundation is a solid setting for the engine. If you haven't got a solid foundation you might properly say you have no foundation. A good engine room and a good foundation is an excellent beginning.
115. The depth of the foundation below grade line depends somewhat on the condition of the soil. It should always go below the freezing line and as much below as is necessary to get a firm base. Ordinarily from three to four feet is sufficient for small engines from four to twelve horse power. Larger sized engines, from fifteen to forty horse power, from four to six feet is not too much.
116. DIMENSIONS OF A FOUNDATION.
—A good rule is to make the length of the foundation in the bottom twice the length of the engine base. The width in the bottom may be two and a fourth times the

width of the engine base. The foundation should be brought up on a batter or incline from the bottom to the floor line or level of the ground.

117. It should then be covered with a capstone or cement block from eight to twelve inches thick, according to the size of the engine. The foundation may be capped with good, heavy timber where a stone or cement are not desirable. You understand, of course, that it is always desirable to have the foundation cap or timbers from two to six inches wider than the engine base and from six to twelve inches longer, so that when the engine is placed on top the cap extends beyond the engine base from one to three inches on each side, say one inch for a 4 horse power and three inches for a 40 horse power.
118. The height of the foundation or top of the cap above the ground level or floor line should be sufficient to clear the fly wheels or prevent them from hanging to the floor by from two to three inches.
119. A concrete foundation, if properly constructed, is the best. While foundations are sometimes built of brick or stone laid in cement, the concrete foundation mixed about as follows, is now the custom: One part of cement, two parts sand, and five parts finely cracked stone or coarse gravel is first-class, foundations built with frozen mortar or con-

crete are no good. Avoid freezing weather while building your foundation.

120. ANCHOR BOLTS.—The number and size are usually determined by the builder of the engine and indicated by the holes he drills into the engine base to receive them. They should be long enough to extend from the bottom of the foundation to from two and a half to four inches above the cap or timber.
121. They should be screwed into a good-sized iron anchor plate at the bottom and threaded on top to receive a nut. An anchor plate six to eight inches wide and ten to fifteen inches long, with a hole in the center tapped or threaded, into which the rod is screwed and riveted, makes an excellent anchorage.
122. It is regarded good practice when setting the anchor bolts before building the foundation to set the anchor plates on small base stone or solid wooden block as large or larger than the anchor plate. Also to slip a piece of iron pipe (with an inside diameter an inch larger than the rod) over each bolt. This pipe should extend from the anchor plate to the top of the foundation, but not to the top of the rod.
123. A TEMPLET should be made with the holes the exact diameter of the rod, and distances between them exactly as the holes in the engine base. The nuts are then run on to the top of each bolt down far enough so

as to let about two inches of the bolt extend above the nut. The bolts are then set in position and stayed at the top by slipping the top of each into the corresponding hole in the templet, the nut serving as a rest for the templet. Line up the bolts with the line shaft or building, stay the templet in that position and proceed to build the foundation around the bolts.

124. After the foundation is complete and it is determined that each bolt is in exact position to enter the corresponding hole in the engine base, the pipe around the bolt may be filled with slush cement, which, when set, will stay the bolts firmly.
125. Three or four days after the foundation is completed, and the cement firmly set, the engine may be placed in position and bolted down for work.
126. LINING UP THE ENGINE with the shaft, and vice versa, is of utmost importance, and it should be done just right, if the drive belt is expected to run true and give good service. Therefore, if the line shaft is in position it is well to take the precaution to see that the drive pulley on the engine and the driven pulley on the line shaft are in line before bolting down the engine.
127. This is done by stretching a line from rim to rim on the outer edge of the line shaft pulley and extending the line to the outer rim and across it on the engine pulley. This

line should just touch the two opposite points on each pulley.

128. A better way to line the engine shaft with the line shaft as follows: Drop two lines from the same edge or side of the line shaft as far apart as the length of the engine shaft. Drop the weight on end of each of these lines into a pail of water on the floor to keep them from swinging. Then measure with tape line, or better, with pole, from each line to the center on each end of engine shaft. These distances should measure exactly alike.
129. PIPING OR CONNECTING UP AN ENGINE consists of piping up the fuel, piping away the exhaust and piping water to and from the engine, if water is used for cooling purposes, and it is more commonly used than any other element for cooling engines at the present time.
130. In making the WATER CONNECTIONS pipe of the size indicated by the ports in the water jacket should be used, unless hydrant water is employed under pressure; then smaller pipe may be used.
131. Valves should always be fitted into the pipe line so as to allow shutting the water off for drainage purposes.
132. When a cooling tank is used the valves should be as near the tank as they can be placed, so that the pipes leading to the engine can be drained.
133. A pipe with a valve and union should

lead from the lower part of the tank to the threaded inlet port, somewhere in the under part of the water jacket of the engine, and a pipe from the outlet port in the top of the cylinder or jacket to the top of the tank.

134. The water passes from the tank to the engine through the lower pipe, and as it becomes heated it raises into the upper pipe and flows back into the top of the tank.

135. This is known as the Thermo-Syphon system and the circulation is caused by one of Nature's laws. Cold water is heavier than hot water, and as the cylinder heats the water it gets lighter and the cold and heavier water naturally crowds in below and forces the heated water through the upper pipe to the tank. Therefore the hottest water is always at the top of the tank, and the cold and heavier at the bottom.

136. PIPE CONNECTIONS FOR THE USE OF HYDRANT WATER are as follows: The inlet pipe from the hydrant to the same point on the engine as in the tank system, with valve and union to guard against freezing by draining the cylinder and pipes attached.

137. The overflow pipe from the top of the cylinder should be led into a waste trough or pipe somewhere in such a manner as to expose to view the stream of water leaving the engine.

138. The pressure from a hydrant is often suf-

ficient to force too much cold water through the water chamber, keeping the cylinder too cool and resulting in a loss of power. The valve in the inlet pipe should be used to throttle the stream to the engine.

139. Where a very limited quantity of water only can be allowed, as in portable engines or automobiles, a circulating pump and fan are sometimes used. By means of radiating spines, either cast onto and around the cylinder, or bronze radiating fins bolted circumferential to it, THE AIR COOLING SYSTEM has been successfully applied in stationary, portable, automobile and motorcycle engines.

By reason of especially designed arrangements whereby a rapid circulation of an air current is made to pass directly about the hottest portion of the cylinder or cylinders, air cooled engines are now performing successfully, even in stationary work of exceptional severity, which was formerly regarded impossible.

The motorcycle motor, by reason of its exposed position, rapid forward motion while in operation, and limited installation space, is not supplied with the blast from a rotating fan, which is such an important factor in the establishment of the successful stationary engine. It, however, is equipped with the radiating spines and is

of the simplest type of air-cooled gasoline motor.

It is quite important that an operator of an air-cooled motor, whether of the automobile or stationary type, should thoroughly acquaint himself with the means provided for cooling and then make it his purpose to keep the cooling equipment in the highest state of mechanical adjustment and efficiency.

For instance, if a belt-driven fan is designed to keep up a rapid circulation of an air current about the radiating spines, the engine can not be expected to succeed under constant and heavy duty with a loose fan belt, or with the belt thrown. Neither could the engine be expected to give its best service in a closed, hot room, even with the fan under full duty, if the fan could get its supply and deliver only the hot air in the room to the engine.

The operator should size up environments and conditions and then arrange to give his engine the advantage of the best cooling privileges that the circumstances will permit of. By a careful understanding of his air-cooling system and by its proper application he will succeed with his engine with much less equipment than is required by the water-cooled system.

140. PIPE CONNECTIONS FOR FUEL IN A GAS ENGINE are: Regulator, gas bag, valve or stop cock and piping of the proper

size to meet the requirements of the engine.

141. Where natural gas is used for fuel it is always desirable to use a REGULATOR. However, we find purchasers who prefer to run their chances of having all kinds of trouble with their engine, which a gas regulator would obviate, rather than go to the expense of putting in a gas regulator. It is needed where gas pressure is liable to vary.
142. Either the gasometer or one of the many diaphragm and valve regulators may be used successfully, provided they allow a sufficient volume of gas at low pressure, say, for instance, not to exceed eight ounces to the square inch.
143. The stop-cock, gas bag and regulator are connected into the pipe from the engine outward in the order just named. First, a short nipple of pipe, say from four to six inches long, is screwed into the inlet port on the engine, onto it the stop-cock, then another piece of pipe to bring the gas bag at some convenient and suitable point, then the gas bag (and it is better to have it within two or three feet of the engine), then more pipe and finally the regulator.
144. The GAS BAG may be a good rubber bag made completely of rubber, or it may be made of an iron frame with rubber diaphragm, such as some engine builders use.
145. When gasoline is the fuel there are two

common methods in use for bringing the gasoline to the engine, namely, the Pump and Gravity Systems. The GRAVITY SYSTEM consists of piping the elevated supply tank to the engine and letting the gasoline into the engine through suitable valves. In this method gasoline is supplied to the engine by its own weight or gravity.

146. FITTINGS FOR GRAVITY METHOD.

—If the gravity method is used, there is an admission valve on the engine, reinforced usually by a needle valve. The supply pipe, including globe valve, is connected from the inlet port on these valves to the supply tank, which is elevated four or five feet above the engine and placed somewhere on a shelf on the walls of the building or some suitable place outside. The globe valve should be placed near the admission valve so as to doubly insure the complete shutting off of the gasoline from the engine when not in use.

147. The arrangement of THE PUMP SYSTEM consists of a small pump fitted to the engine which is designed to be piped to the supply tank outside of the building, and to draw the gasoline from the tank and force it into the Mixer of the engine as it needs it.

148. The supply tank in this instance is located somewhere from three to six feet below the engine, and an overflow pipe is connected to it from the engine for the purpose of return-

ing to the tank any oversupply that may be forced up by the pump.

149. There is a pipe connection between the lower part of the supply tank and the suction port or valve on the pump, and an overflow pipe from the mixing or supply cup on the engine to the top of the tank. The tank is so placed as to allow drainage of all the gasoline in the pipes, back to the tank when the engine is not in use.
150. From $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch pipe is used ordinarily, according to the size of the engine.
151. Fire Insurance Companies require the pump system, with the tank placed a certain distance away from the building. But the gravity method is just as effective in supplying the engine with fuel and has the advantage of less mechanism to get out of order. Of course, good threaded pipes and absolutely tight joints should be insisted on in these pipe connections for gasoline.
152. EXHAUST CONNECTIONS.—When an engine is installed in a building, the real object of exhaust pipe connections is to get the burnt gases and the noise from the exhaust outside of the building. And inasmuch as the noise is very undesirable in many localities, it is the custom of nearly all engine builders to supply, with their engines, a large iron Drum, into which the pipe from the engine is connected and which serves as a muffler to the exhaust reports.

153. MUFFLERS of different kinds are used on portable and automobile engines. They are usually arranged to screw onto the end of the exhaust pipe and consist of an iron casing, enclosing a series of small cavities, which are freely connected with the inlet and also with the many small openings which serve as an outlet. The object in such a muffler is to break the force of the exhaust pressure and let it into the open air through many small openings.
154. PIPING THE EXHAUST INTO A FLUE OR CHIMNEY OF A BUILDING.
—There may be very serious objections urged against this practice. Unless the flue has a large caliber, with a good draught, it should not be considered at all.
155. There is always more or less experimenting necessary where an inexperienced hand is learning to run a gas engine. And he may turn the engine over, admitting charges and forcing them out of the exhaust pipe into the flue a number of times before igniting one of them, and when the ignition does occur the flue is charged with gas, which lets go with such force as to wreck the flue and sometimes the building.
156. The sooner gas engine builders and purchasers get the idea out of their heads that "any old thing" is good enough, the better it will be for every one concerned.
157. Piping the exhaust into a well or cistern,

if properly done, is all right. I should suggest, however, in such instances, that before it is done it is known that the water never rises to a point to interfere with the exhaust.

158. In fact, to be on the safe side, the entire space in the cistern or well should be free from water at all times. A good tight cement covering with a good sized vent should be arranged.
159. A box two by two by four feet, buried in the ground endwise and filled with clean pebbles or stones in sizes from that of a hen's egg to that of a man's fist, makes an excellent muffler for an engine up to 25 h. p. The exhaust pipe should, of course, be led into the lower part of this muffler and water excluded at all times.
160. A box two feet square inside, ten feet long, made of heavy (two inch) plank, without bottom, buried in the ground, and the exhaust from the engine piped into one end, and a short pipe from the other end as a vent, makes a very effective muffler. No stone is used in this box—just the hollow in the box with ground floor. The entire box should be buried to a depth of two feet.
161. The exhaust connections are simply a pipe of the proper size leading from the exhaust valve port to the exhaust drum and from another port in the drum to the outside of the building, or underground muffler, if one is used, and thence to the outside.

162. It is well to place the exhaust drum as near to the engine as possible and get to the outside of the building by the shortest convenient route. Long exhaust pipes have no tendency to improve the running qualities of the engine.
163. The end of the exhaust pipe should be left free and open, where an exhaust drum is used, except that it is good practice to screw a "T" onto the end of the pipe and a short nipple into each end of this "T," which serves the double purpose of protecting the pipe from snow, rain and ice, and relieves the exhaust by two openings, instead of one.
164. For the purpose of explaining more fully, I wish to modify my previous statement against the use of long exhaust pipes. The advice is proper with practically all engines built in this country up to the present time.
165. **SCAVENGING ENGINES.**—Plausible claims are made for the scavenging engines, some of which are coming into use. The object of scavenging is to free the clearance space or combustion chamber from burnt gases each time before another fresh charge is admitted.
166. It is recommended that an exhaust pipe of sufficient length and proportions will cause a succession of waves in the outward rush of the exhaust gases, which tend to create a partial vacuum in the clearance

space, and thereby practically free it from burnt gases. I will not go into detail of the scavenging engine, as practically all of smaller power are non-scavenging up to the present time, and there is no indication of the scavengers coming into immediate use, in America at least.

167. **TUBE IGNITOR.**—The tube ignitor consists of a **TUBE** closed at one end and threaded and open at the other, a cast iron chimney, a gas or gasoline burner, pipe connections from the gas supply to the burner or to a small gasoline supply tank elevated five or six feet.
169. The tube is anywhere from 5 inches to 12 inches long and from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{8}$ inch in diameter. It is made either of common gas pipe or nickel alloy, sometimes called composition tubing. The threaded and open end of the tube is screwed into an opening which communicates with the interior of the cylinder or firing chamber. This makes a continuous passage from the combustion chamber up in the hollow of the tube to its closed end.
170. It is intended to keep this tube at a red heat while the engine is running. This is done by means of the cast iron chimney, which is fitted on so as to entirely enclose this tube, and a burner fitted into the lower part of this chimney so as to direct a jet or Bunsen flame against the lower end of the tube.

171. The top of the chimney may be capped with numerous small vent holes in the cap. The inside of the chimney is lined with asbestos sheet, the object of which is to retain the heat and confine the flame immediately around the tube as much as possible.
172. The burner should be so constructed as to deliver a bright blue flame around the tube, which should become heated to a cherry red heat in from three to five minutes after it is lighted. The burner is usually fitted with a valve with which to control the flame, but the pipe connections from the burner to the gasoline supply tank or to the gas supply should contain a valve as a means of shutting off the full supply from the burner when the engine is not in use.
173. The object in elevating the gasoline supply tank is to give sufficient pressure at the burner or generator to throw the jet of gas with some force against the tube.
174. The point in the length of the tube at which the flame should be directed depends on the compression pressure in the cylinder. If there is a high compression pressure the firing point on the tube should be naturally higher up because the fresh charge forces its way higher up into the tube on a high than on a low compression.
175. You understand that the tube always remains filled with burnt gases when the ordinary tube igniting engine exhausts the burnt

charge. The fresh charge then has to crowd up against this burnt gas in the tube, which serves as a cushion, and drives it into the upper part of the tube until the fresh gas meets the red hot part of the tube, when ignition occurs. You will therefore see that if the compression in an engine is light it can not force the fresh charge as high into the tube, and consequently the tube should be heated lower down.

176. Some builders are now making adjustable chimneys, to which the burner is fastened, which can be moved up or down and fixed so as to direct the flame against any point on the tube to suit the compression.
177. What would I do if I had an engine with a fixed flame point? I should try tubes of different lengths until one was found that gave the best results. If pre-ignition occurs it may not be possible to correct the trouble by changing the length of the tube, and something must be devised to raise the flame point higher on the tube.
178. **ELECTRIC IGNITOR.**—The electric igniting outfit for make and break ignition consists of a spark coil, a current breaker or switch, from fifteen to forty feet of insulated copper wire, about No. 14, a battery or small dynamo or magneto which generates the current, and the sparking mechanism on the engine, which has already been described.

179. THE SPARK COIL is a bundle of soft Iron Wires, cut all the same length, anywhere from five to ten inches long. The ends of this bundle of wires are inserted into a round hole, in a small block of wood, of just the exact size to receive all the wires and hold them firmly together in the shape of a round bundle.
180. This bundle between the blocks of wood is covered with a sheath of pasteboard, around which is wrapped closely and evenly from end to end, between the blocks, successive layers of one continuous piece of insulated wire. The two ends of this insulated wire are fastened to separate binding posts, which are mounted on one end of the blocks. These blocks are then screwed firmly to a small baseboard, so as to hold all parts of the coil firmly in position.
181. It serves the purpose of resistance to the current and the storage of magnetic force in the core of wire, without which an igniting spark can not be made. This refers only to the common make-and-break coil.
182. If the length of insulated wire is properly proportioned to the bundle of soft wire, the coil also serves to allow a shorter contact of the terminal points, which in turn prevents waste of current and wear of the points, which are both items of considerable expense if not carefully guarded. A short coil four to six inches long meets all the requirements.

183. A SWITCH may be simply a block of wood, porcelain or hard rubber mounted with two binding posts and a connecting lever, which is permanently connected to one binding post and may be connected or disconnected with the other binding post at will.
184. Its purpose is to switch the current on to the engine for work or to cut it out and insure against short circuit when the engine is not in use.
185. ELECTRIC CONNECTIONS TO THE SPARKING DEVICE ON THE ENGINE.
—One end of the wire which is to carry the current should be connected to the binding post on the insulated terminal or electrode; the other wire is attached to the other binding post, which is usually placed at some convenient point on the engine by the builders.
186. If there is but one binding post supplied on the engine, then the second wire may be attached firmly to any bright point on the engine which is convenient, or it may even be fastened around one of the gasoline or water pipes if they are not painted.
187. The insulation must always be stripped off of the end that is to be fastened and the connection made with the bare end of the wires.
188. The wire from the insulated terminal binding post is then carried to the spark coil and connected to one of its binding posts. From the other binding post on the spark coil a piece of wire is carried to the first cell of the

battery and connected to its positive or carbon binding post or to the same on dynamo or magneto.

189. This makes one connection between the engine and the battery or magneto, whichever is used for ignition purposes.

190. Another wire is carried from the negative point on dynamo, or zinc binding post on battery, to one of the switch binding posts, and from the other switch binding post to the engine. The switch may be fastened at some convenient place on the wall.

191. The two wires from the battery or dynamo to the engine, one containing the coil and the other the switch, completes the circuit.

192. IN CONNECTING THE BATTERY all the cells between the first and last must be connected up in a series with short pieces of insulated wire, as follows: From the zinc binding post on the first cell to the copper-oxide binding post on the second; from zinc on second to copper on third, and so on until all are connected.

193. If a FLUID CELL BATTERY is used it must be charged, which consists of first making a solution with the chemical used for that purpose and soft water. After each cell is nearly filled with this solution the metal bases, such as zinc and carbon, which are usually attached to the lid of the cell, are lowered into the solution in the cell. Then it is ready to be connected up in the series. All fluid bat-

teries are accompanied with instruction sheets.

194. With stationary engines it has been the custom to use fluid batteries, but many DRY CELL batteries have been introduced, which serve successfully and are formidable rivals of the fluid cell.
195. There are also the little SPARKING DY-NAMO and MAGNETO, which are successfully used in many instances for stationary gas engine ignition. Also the HOT TUBE, previously described.
196. There are so many points to be considered in this connection that it would not be fair to our readers to attempt to recommend either device above the other.
197. The ignition of a gas engine is a source of repair expense, no matter what source of electrical energy is used. Each arrangement has its disadvantages as well as its advantages. Economy, safety, attention, convenience, cleanliness and reliability are the principal points to be considered.
198. The location and surroundings would probably determine my preference. For instance, in the natural gas field, where fuel is very cheap, I might decide on the hot tube ignition. Away off in the country, where gasoline is the fuel and somewhat expensive, I think a good dry cell battery would about meet the conditions. In the city, where electricians are to be easily had when repairs are

necessary, the magneto or dynamo would, in my opinion, more nearly meet the requirements. The fluid cell is a sort of mother over all the others because it was the original and has been most generally employed in this country for stationary gas engine ignition.

199. By the foregoing statement I do not mean to convey the idea that the fluid battery is more desirable than others, only that it holds sort of a pre-empted claim now by reason of having been more generally used in the past.
200. I wish to make this assertion, that I can operate a gas engine successfully on either method of ignition anywhere, with economy possibly in favor of the magneto if it is well constructed, but it may require more attention than the battery. (See special chapter on Dynamo and Magneto Ignition.)
201. Either method, as before stated, has its advantages and disadvantages, and my advice to my readers is that, whichever method you may be called upon to use, inform yourselves as quickly as possible on its disadvantages, and overcome them as nearly as possible.
202. I doubt not that the reader now thinks we have reached the point of starting the engine and is anxious "to see the wheels go round." But you will be more highly delighted in seeing them turn if you have first learned and attended to all the preliminaries. A good engineer never omits one of them; a bungler overlooks all of them.

203. These PRELIMINARIES are ARRANGEMENT, CLEANLINESS, WATER, OILING. Under arrangement comes the old adage, "A place for everything and everything in its place." The condition of the engine room portrays the character of the person in charge. A BAD RUNNING ENGINE, waste, wrenches, oil cans, litter in general scattered promiscuously over the floor of the engine room indicates a bungler not worthy the name of engineer.
204. An engine room with plenty of light, everything in apple-pie order, trim, clean and neat, means a nice running engine and a For-Sure Engineer.
205. Cleanliness contributes so much to the successful running of an engine that it can not be TOO FIRMLY IMPRESSED on the mind. The companion of cleanliness is PLENTY OF LIGHT. Darkness and dirt go hand in hand.
206. Therefore, with plenty of light in the engine room it should be cleaned up and made as free as possible from dust and grit. After this the engine should be thoroughly cleaned all over, giving special attention to the Cog or Spiral Gears, governor, valve stems and valve cams. On account of dampness these working parts often become rusted in shipment, and will not work properly until cleaned.
207. The water supply should be noticed to see

if the tank is full to the overflow pipe, and in cold weather to see that none of the pipes are frozen up.

208. Then comes the oiling of the engine, which should be done in a thorough manner. Use ordinary machine oil on the various parts of the engine, EXCEPT IN THE CYLINDER. A special cylinder oil for gas engines only should be used.
209. Steam cylinder oil is not well adapted to a gas engine cylinder. A light, thin cylinder oil, of high fire test, is best adapted to use in the gas engine cylinder. It is usually much less expensive than heavy steam cylinder oil. Some gas engines are fitted at the wrist and journal boxes with grease cups, which should be filled with shafting or graphite grease and set so as to feed automatically.
210. When oil and grease cups are filled and all bearing parts that are liable to wear are oiled, the VALVE STEMS should be tried by lifting the valve pallet from its seat a number of times after squirting some kerosene oil on the stem from a squirt can. These stems should be frequently examined and kerosene oil used occasionally to keep them clean. Never use ordinary lubricating oil on them. The heat simply burns it and leaves a gummy deposit on the stem which interferes with the free movement of the valve.
211. STARTING IS NEXT IN ORDER.—
Practically all the small-sized engines from

two to ten-horse power are started, as it is called, by hand. Some engine builders fit their engines over ten horse-power with a starter, which, in some instances, is more alluring to the purchaser than practical.

212. The first act in starting a gas engine by hand after switching in the battery current is to get a charge of gas and air, properly mixed, into the cylinder. This is accomplished by opening the gas or gasoline valve slightly so as to admit a small portion of the fuel as the receiving valves are opened when the fly wheels are turned over at a rapid rate.
213. When gasoline is the fuel some manufacturers supply a starting cup, which fits on the mouth of the air or receiving pipe, and instead of opening the needle valve a small portion of gasoline (about a tablespoonful) is put into the cup and placed on the mouth of the receiving pipe, and when the wheels are turned over the air rushes through the gasoline in the cup, and the engine receives its first two or three impulses from the fuel in the cup, which gives a sufficient momentum to keep it going until the cup can be taken off and the gasoline from the needle or throttle valve is admitted, from which the engine gathers full speed.
214. You have no doubt heard persons say that they have to turn their engine for half an hour or more before they can get it going. If such persons knew that they are simply pro-

claiming their astounding lack of judgment they would not be telling it.

215. But, you say, if the engine fails to ignite its first, its second and its third charges, is it not policy to keep turning the wheel until it does ignite? If neither of the first three or four charges are ignited the cause of non-ignition will not be removed by turning the wheel and will probably be getting worse the longer you turn, and the fellow who does not know what else to do but turn ought to be compelled to turn vigorously until his tongue hangs out of his mouth to the length of a full-grown lead pencil. If such exertion doesn't start his thinker, his case is probably hopeless.

216. If an engine doesn't ignite its first charges there is a cause for it, and no amount of turning will locate it, but a little common-sense thinking will not only locate but remove the cause, and the engine will do its own turning after the first two or four revolutions.

217. You would like to know why I say four. If common sense will do it, after allowing one revolution to admit the charge and gain the momentum, why not always start or ignite the second revolution? There is no such thing as absolute perfection even in common sense, but four, and occasionally six revolutions for ignition may come within the bounds of practical perfection. However, I know of many gas engine operators who sel-

dom turn the wheel more than the second time.

218. The engineer who knows his lesson well will know that there are many improper adjustments and irregularities that will cause failure of ignition on the first turn, and will avoid them, and as they are of sufficient importance to require special attention we had better finish starting the engine in a normal condition and take up this subject later.
219. **TURNING OVER COMPRESSION POINT.**—Nearly all engines are provided either with a relief valve or a shifting cam or lever, which makes a relief out of the exhaust valve. By means of these valves only the latter part of the compression stroke serves the purpose, inasmuch as the former part is relieved by an open valve. This allows sufficient compression to start with and makes resistance at this point barely perceptible in turning.
220. Others prefer to inhale a charge by a one-half turn of the wheel on the outward movement of the piston, then by disengaging the receiving valve lever from its cam a rapid backward movement of the wheel, and the piston compresses the charges, and fires it from the tube ignitor or the electric spark, by snapping the sparker quickly by hand while on compression.
221. The ignition of this charge drives the piston rapidly forward and gives the wheels

sufficient momentum to carry several revolutions and catch the next charge.

222. Where a relief lever cam or valve is used the impulses are necessarily light while the valve is relieving the compression, and the lever should be shifted and the valve closed as soon as the wheels have gathered sufficient momentum to carry over the full compression.
223. Instead of having the engine inhale its own charge by turning the wheel, some builders fit their engines with a small HAND AIR PUMP for the purpose of pumping the first charge into the cylinder. The air thus pumped passes through a receptacle containing gasoline, which serves as a carbureter and charges the air sufficiently with gasoline to make it explosive. After the cylinder receives its charge from the pump, the valve in the pump connection is closed, and the wheels backed up on compression, the charge is fired as before described, or by means of a match ignitor.
224. THE MATCH IGNITOR consists of a little tube containing a plunger and closed solidly at one end, except two sides notches near the end, and fitted at the other end with a packing gland through which the stem of the plunger extends to the outside. The end of this stem is fitted with a button.
225. The tube being threaded, is screwed into a port into the cylinder walls and the notched

end of it extends into the combustion chamber.

226. The head of the match is placed under the plunger and the button tapped with the hand, dashing the plunger down onto the match head, and the resulting flash ignites the first charge in the cylinder through the side notches in the tube.
227. A somewhat different device is fitted to some engines, but the principle is the same exactly.
228. You, of course, understand that this is used only for igniting the initial charge, and consequently is only a starter.
229. The compressed air starter consists of a tank with a capacity two or three times that of the engine cylinder, and an air pump, which is driven by a belt from the line shaft, fills the tank with air to a pressure of from sixty to one hundred pounds, which is indicated by a pressure gauge on the tank. The tank is filled when the engine is running and held ready for the next start.
230. The pipe leading from the tank to the compression chamber in the cylinder is fitted with a handle valve that can be manipulated quickly.
231. When ready to start, the engine is set with the piston back in the cylinder, the crank shaft about two inches above the inner center and the valves closed. Of course, the cylin-

der valves must remain closed on the first outward movement of the piston.

232. When the engine is set all ready to receive the charge from the tank and the battery current switched on ready for ignition, the valve between the engine and tank is quickly opened, throwing the pressure from the tank into the cylinder, which drives the piston forward. By closing the valve at the end of the piston stroke the act may be repeated at the second revolution following, giving impulse sufficient to catch a charge of gas and air with the ignition on the third or fourth revolution.
233. This compressed air starter is seldom used on engines under 20 h. p.
234. The same arrangement with a smaller tank and much less pressure can be used successfully by fitting a little cup, for the purpose of holding gasoline, into the pipe between the tank and engine, and as the air rushes from the tank into the cylinder it is charged with gasoline and may be exploded by the Electric Spark or igniting mechanism.
235. The Compressed Air method seems the most practical for starting larger sized engines. While it makes the first cost of an engine higher, it is well worth its price to the purchaser.
236. It is supposed, of course, that an engine will run all right after it is once started, but it doesn't always do it. You should run an

engine for at least a half hour without a load when starting it the first time. This will give you an opportunity to get familiar with it, running empty.

237. If it is receiving its fuel in the proper proportions and the ignitor is working all right it will go right up to its normal speed within a few seconds after starting, and if it has a hit and miss governor it will cut out or miss three or four charges to every one it takes.
238. If it runs along this way at a "merry clip," taking only one charge in three or four and firing every charge it takes, you can rest assured that it is ready for work.
239. But if there is a popping or back firing into the receiving pipe it may need MORE FUEL or the receiving valve may not close properly, or the ignitor may not be set in proper time, or is otherwise out of adjustment.
240. TOO MUCH FUEL is indicated when there is smoke issuing from the exhaust pipe and when the charges that are taken are not all ignited.
241. You can shut down a gas engine by feeding too much fuel just as readily as by not giving it enough. A little judgment here will tell any one when he is feeding the fuel properly.
242. It is a mistake to turn on MORE FUEL WHEN MORE POWER is wanted. When

an engine is pulling nearly its full load it is cutting out only about one charge in five or six. By listening closely to the sounds made by the engine and at the same time noticing it closely you will be able to judge whether it is running properly or whether it lacks the energy it should develop.

243. The COMPRESSION has very much to do with the power developed. For instance, if the valves are not seating properly or the piston rings are poorly fitted, so as to allow the escape of part of the charge compressed and also a part of the impulsive force, the engine will develop but very little more power than to keep itself in motion.
244. About thirty per cent. of the entire cylinder volume should constitute COMPRESSION CHAMBER. If a high compression pressure is desired twenty-five or even twenty per cent. is allowable.
245. You understand that it is necessary, in figuring up cylinder volume, to consider all the valve and port space, which is practically a part of the cylinder. The principal objection to a high compression is the danger of premature firing of charges under a full load, which is due to auto-ignition, a result of high compression pressure.
246. HIGH COMPRESSION is sometimes, but by no means always, the cause of premature firing. In fact, I might say that it is one of

the rare causes, because very high compression engines are rare.

247. **PREMATURE IGNITION** may be caused by one thing in one engine and an entirely different thing in another. Probably the most common cause is some projecting point of iron in the combustion chamber that becomes red hot, which serves to ignite the charge, similar to a heated tube.
248. An improperly proportioned mixture, resulting in a slow combustion, may be so slow as to be still burning when the next charge is admitted, and then the next charge will be ignited just as it is entering the cylinder and fire back through the receiving pipe.
249. Little chunks of burnt carbon, accumulating from the burnt cylinder oil, in the combustion chamber, may constantly remain heated to the ignition point and ignite the charges prematurely.
250. Points of carbon deposited on any projection in the combustion chamber will do the same thing. It is, therefore, necessary to occasionally clean out the gas engine cylinder.
251. A **CONSTRICTED EXHAUST** passage may retain a higher degree of heat in the cylinder and thereby assist in maintaining an igniting heat on some projecting point in the combustion chamber. But there is a power significance to valves and their passage that should determine their size and areas.
252. Constricted valve passages are a decided

hindrance to the development of power. The valve proportions should always be carefully figured from piston speed and cylinder area.

253. The receiving valve area should be such as to give the ingoing gases a speed of from 95 to 110 feet per second. The exhaust gases should leave the cylinder at from 75 to 85 feet per second at atmospheric pressure.

254. The exhaust should be larger than the inlet valve, because at the moment of the opening of the exhaust valve there is a pressure of from twenty-five to thirty-five pounds in the cylinder to relieve, and consequently the rush of exhaust gases at the moment of release is away above 110 feet per second, and if it had to pass through a constricted valve passage it would maintain the initial high speed throughout the exhaust stroke of the piston, resulting in a piston pressure on the entire exhaust stroke.

255. The point, then, is to figure the exhaust passage of such proportions as to relieve the exhaust gases at an average speed throughout the exhaust stroke of not over 100 feet per second. I regret to say that it is not an uncommon practice among manufacturers in this country to make the valves and their passages too small.

256. In a number of engines I had the privilege to examine, manufactured by different concerns, I found either a constricted cylinder port or valve area, or both.

257. It is the height of folly to have a good big cylinder port, and choke the passage with a "measley" little valve, or vice versa.

The passage should be of uniform area and of ample capacity from the cylinder port to the end of the pipe.

258. The manufacturer who will not figure these valve areas carefully, of sufficient capacity, is cheating his engine out of a reputation and his customer out of power.

259. **TIMING THE VALVES.**—The movement of the valves should be timed to give the proper results. This is an important point for all gas engine operators to remember. The valve cams on a four-cycle engine are usually driven by the two to one gear fitted onto the crank shaft, and if for any reason the gears are taken apart and put together, even if only one cog out of place, it will throw the valves and sparking arrangement out of time.

260. The manufacturers usually mark a **TOOTH** or **COG** on one gear and its corresponding groove on the other with the same mark. These marked points should always meet, and the engine is then properly timed. You can, of course, easily understand how a cam and cam roller may become worn by constant use so as to throw the valve out of time. A worn condition means lost motion, which results in opening the valve too late and closing it too early.

261. You can test an engine to know if it is properly timed by turning the wheels over slowly and noticing at what point the valves open and close and where the igniting points separate.
262. THE RECEIVING VALVE should open at the beginning of the outward stroke and close at the end of the same stroke. The next inward stroke is the compression stroke, when all valves should be closed.
263. THE SPARKER POINTS should separate and make a spark just before the end of the compression stroke is reached. This is done to allow for the instant of time between the making of the spark and the resulting combustion. The force of combustion does not come instantaneous with the making of the spark. Therefore the compression stroke will have ended before the force of combustion really begins, and the piston just starting on its outward stroke receives the full expansive force of combustion.
264. If the spark were made just at the end of the compression stroke actual ignition or expansion would not occur until the piston had traveled probably a fourth of its outward stroke. This delayed combustion could not be as effective as if occurring at the very beginning of the working stroke.
265. THE EXHAUST VALVE should open when about three-fourths of the working stroke is completed, so as to relieve the cylin-

der practically to atmospheric pressure at the end of the stroke. The exhaust valve should then remain open for the entire exhaust stroke, and should close just as the receiving valve is again opening.

266. Again I think it proper to refer to the question of lubricating the valve stems of the gas engine. The work an exhaust valve is designed to do makes lubricating impracticable. The heat passing through the exhaust valve will quickly destroy the lubricating qualities of any oil, and therefore it makes it useless.
267. It is, therefore, the custom of gas engine builders to make no provision for valve lubrication. They can be operated successfully without oil. Before starting a new engine squirt some kerosene oil on the stem and see that it moves freely. A good grade of powdered graphite used on the valves and valve stems occasionally would tend to improve their working qualities.
268. All frictional parts should be regularly lubricated. But the crank pin and cylinder need to be specially looked after. The oil cups supplying these parts should be noticed often during a day's run to make sure that the oil is supplied and properly distributed.
269. Insufficient lubrication of the cylinder is often indicated by a peculiar blowing, barking noise in the cylinder at each impulse. It is due usually to a dry piston allowing the force of combustion to pass the rings. It can

often be overcome by adjusting the lubricator for a freer oil supply without stopping the engine.

270. After running a cylinder dry at the first opportunity the piston should be taken out, and the rings, their seats and the entire piston thoroughly cleaned. At the same time the cylinder and combustion chamber should be examined with a lighted candle and cleaned from chunks of burnt lubricating oil and deposits of carbon in the form of soot. This is also a good time to clean the valve and valve ports, as well as the igniting apparatus.
271. Before the piston is returned to the cylinder it should be lubricated with oil. A good engineer will seldom have this to do, because he will see to it that his cylinder is lubricated.
272. The crank bearing should run cool. If it does not it indicates that lubrication is at fault or that it is not properly adjusted.
273. A good engineer will not rest easy until he has located and removed the cause of a hot-running crank box.
274. FUEL CONSUMPTION of an engine is always a legitimate question and one of grave importance to the purchaser, as well as to the manufacturer.
275. Ordinarily about one and two-tenths pints (1 2-10) of gasoline or about fifteen feet of natural gas, per horse power per hour under full load, will cover the fuel consumption.

That is, when the gases named are of standard quality and the water comes from the water jacket at a temperature of about 160 degrees Fahrenheit.

276. The temperature of the water in the chamber around the cylinder has very much to do with fuel consumption.
277. If water from a hydrant is forced around the cylinder so as to keep it cold, the heat from the explosions or combustion is cooled down so quickly by radiation that the expansive force is materially reduced, and consequently less power from the same charge.
278. The object of the water is not to keep the cylinder Cold, but simply Cool enough so as to prevent the lubricating oil from burning. The hotter the cylinder with effective lubrication the more power the engine will develop.
279. It should also be remembered that an engine is the most economical in fuel consumption when working practically under a full load.
280. It is wrong to suppose that an engine taking fifteen feet of gas per horse power under a full load should take only seven and a half ($7\frac{1}{2}$) feet under half load. When running empty an engine may use from thirty to thirty-five per cent of its total fuel consumption under full load.
281. Speed has considerable influence over fuel consumption, especially in driving the engine empty. Take, for instance, an engine of four

horse power, run it empty at a speed of, say, 250 revolutions per minute, and notice its fuel requirements at that speed, then increase the speed to 500 revolutions per minute, and you practically double the fuel consumption running the engine alone.

282. It is not always practical for a manufacturer to guarantee fuel consumption. I should say it is seldom, if ever, practical to do so without exacting from the purchaser conditions and requirements that would make him feel that the engine itself is not practical. In general the average fuel consumption may easily be kept down to the quantity above mentioned, although many conditions may arise to change the amount required.

283. It is not always the fault of the manufacturer if the fuel consumption overruns the estimate. It is more often the fault of the engineer, in my opinion.

I should advise for economical fuel consumption:

First—To keep jacket water at 160 degrees Fahrenheit.

Second—To run engine at a medium speed.

Third—To use a good standard fuel.

Fourth—To see that every charge the engine takes is exploded, for which a proper mixture and a good spark or hot tube are necessary.

Fifth—The admission valve should close properly between charges, so as not to allow

a continuous flow of fuel into the engine.

Sixth—Never throttle the fuel so closely that the engine cannot get a full charge every time it needs it.

Seventh—Be sure that there is no leak in the supply or overflow pipes where fuel can escape.

Eighth—When gasoline is used be sure that there is no leak in the supply tank.

Ninth—Exhaust and Receiving Valves must seat properly and not leak. Cylinder rings must hold the explosive force.

With these precautions one will use only so much as will be required by the engine to handle its load.

PART IV.

GAS ENGINE TROUBLES

284. Following are five gas-engine troubles that are most frequently met with: Defective Ignition, Pounding in the Cylinder, Loss of Power, Back Firing and Obstinate Starting, although the last is very often intimately associated with the first.
285. DEFECTIVE IGNITION.—The symptoms and causes for defective ignition are: Difficult starting, thumping in the cylinder and an occasional terrific report at the end of the exhaust pipe, Misfiring, Premature Firing. It must not be taken for granted, however, that difficult starting is always due to defective ignition. But when an engine refuses to start after turning the wheels several times, defective ignition may be suspected, and the igniting apparatus should be looked after.
286. REMEDIES FOR DEFECTIVE IGNITION.—If a tube ignitor is used and the charge is fired too early, throwing the wheels backward, the flame should be raised so as to heat the tube at a higher point. If the charge isn't fired at all, then the flame may be directed at a lower point on the tube. But in either event it is always best to have the

tube quite hot (bright red hot) when starting. It can be cooled to a cherry red after the engine is running, and yet fire its charges successfully. The port or passage between cylinder and tube must always be free and unobstructed. It sometimes clogs with burnt carbon. Sometimes the builder makes this port too small. Clean if obstructed. Enlarge it if necessary.

287. When the battery or magneto is used for make and break ignition purposes the timing of the spark is always important. The terminals should separate just before the crank passes the inner center. The switch may be disconnected. Some of the wires may be loose on their binding posts. The terminals or the movable terminal shaft may be gummed up or corroded and needs cleaning. The battery may be nearly exhausted and needs renewing. The current may be short-circuited somewhere before reaching the engine.

288. **SHORT CIRCUIT.**—If the zinc plates or any one of them should be allowed to touch the carbon within the cell it will cause an internal short circuit. If one wire from the battery to the engine should have its insulation broken at a point where it touches some pipe or iron that in any way communicates with the other wire, there is an external short circuit. Broken insulation may short circuit the spark coil.

289. The Battery current is tested by disconnecting the end of one of the terminal wires and touching with it the binding post to which the other wire is attached. If it does not make a bright spark each time the wire is snapped or slipped off the binding post you can be sure that some of the causes above named are to be found and as soon as the cause is removed the spark will show up all right.
290. If there is a good spark on the ends of the wires and a weak one or none at all at the point of contact of the terminals it indicates that the trouble is in the sparking mechanism on the engine. This mechanism is either corroded, gummy or short circuited. It should be thoroughly cleaned and closely examined for a short circuit. Carbon deposit coating over the insulation or inside of exploding chamber may cause a short circuit.
291. The SPARKER INSULATION can easily be tested by disconnecting the wire NOT attached to the insulated terminal and snapping it off some of the bright parts of the engine, when the terminals are apart (the other wire being of course attached to the binding post on the insulated terminal), and if a spark is made it indicates that the insulation is broken and consequently a short circuit. If no spark is made the insulation is all right.
292. There should be nothing loose or no lost

motion about the terminals or the mechanism operating them.

293. Either a good fluid or dry cell battery will furnish a good spark from two to six months, according to the amount of work done with the engine. If the engine is used continuously for ten hours each day the battery may need renewing any time after two or three months.
294. I have on several different occasions found engines that absolutely refused to start when the battery and all connections seemed to be in good condition, but went off and ran perfectly from the first turn of the wheel after a new spark coil was placed in the circuit. The short circuit in the old coil was so deep down among the coils of wire that it could not be detected.
295. The character or appearance of the spark, and especially if of a scattering nature, should lead you to suspect a short circuited coil. An EFFECTIVE or GOOD igniting spark is a SINGLE BLUE-WHITE SPARK at the point of contact. But beware of a dozen little sparks flying out in all directions from the terminals. They will not ignite.
296. A battery may not be entirely exhausted when it fails to give an igniting spark. The fluid in the cell may have evaporated so that the carbon element is not sufficiently submerged. I have repeatedly revived fluid batteries that were apparently exhausted by

simply filling into each cell pure rain water to within one-half inch of the lid of the cell.

297. An old battery that has not been used for a long time, and in which the elements seem good may be treated this way, and afterwards short circuited for about three or five minutes.

298. In fact, in renewing a battery or setting up a new one, it is always good policy to short circuit it for from three to five minutes by bringing the ends of the terminal wires in contact with each other. This creates a healthy chemical action within the cells, which is necessary to generate the electric current.

299. The current from a dynamo ignitor is tested, while the dynamo is running at its rated speed, by taking a piece of wire about two feet long with the insulation stripped off both ends, and placing one end onto one of the binding posts of the machine and snapping the other end off the other binding post. This will produce a faint spark if a current is generating, and by placing a spark coil in the circuit—that is, by taking two short wires as above described and connecting one end of each to a binding post on the coil and using the other ends to make and break the current on the dynamo binding posts—you get the full benefit of the current and can judge of the igniting qualities by the size and color of the spark.

300. The fields of a dynamo should not become overheated, but should remain cool. The bearings should be oiled properly, and the brushes and commutator should have regular attention. It should be kept absolutely clean. For further information see chapter on Generator Ignition.
301. Before leaving the subject of ignition I wish to emphasize the fact THAT A GAS ENGINE IS NOT RUNNING PROPERLY if every charge admitted by the governor is NOT FIRED or ignited. No one should allow his engine to run taking two, three or four charges in succession and only firing one of them, without immediately locating and removing the cause.
302. I recall a case of misfiring and an occasional terrific report at the end of the exhaust pipe which was caused by the taper pin, which held the rocker arm to the movable stem, wearing loose and allowing lost motion at this point, which should have been rigid. A new and larger sized pin made out of a wire nail driven firmly into position completely overcame the trouble.
303. The lost motion made such an indefinite and uneven contact that only an occasional charge was ignited, which in turn ignited those previously forced through the cylinder, without ignition, into the exhaust drum and pipe, and the result was a terrific report at the end of the exhaust pipe, similar to the

firing of a cannon. Every engineer should familiarize himself quickly with the natural sounds of his engine, and his ear will always be on the alert and detect any unnatural sound the instant it occurs.

304. I have been able to correctly say, "That engine is not firing all its charges," by listening to the exhaust reports half a mile across the country. The character of the sound of the exhaust reports, as well as their number between intermissions, will also tell you at a distance whether the engine has a light or heavy load and whether it is overloaded.

305. The sense of hearing suspects and decides whether there is trouble when the engine is running. The sense of sight locates and corrects it. The sense of smell will tell you whether fumes of burnt gas are passing the piston rings or leaky valves, and escaping into the engine-room instead of outside through the exhaust pipe. The sense of touch tells you whether the journal boxes and other bearings are running cool. The sense of taste is about the only one of the five senses that we do not need to detect some trouble about an engine. In fact, I have seen engines running so badly that I imagined I could taste it. The ear, however, may be considered the chief guide while the engine is in motion.

306. POUND IN CYLINDER.—The principal

cause of pounding in the cylinder is pre-ignition of the charge. Pre-ignition, as has already been stated, is usually caused by some projecting point or carbon deposit in the igniting chamber, heated to the igniting point. A high compression of the charge may also contribute to pre-ignition.

307. Of course a knock or pound at the wrist or crosshead, due to lost motion at these points, must not be confounded with a pound in the cylinder. A loose fly-wheel may also puzzle one at times, inasmuch as the jar or thump caused by it may sound like a thump in the cylinder.
308. I would test pre-ignition by throwing off the igniting current or shutting off the tube ignitor. If the engine continues to fire its own charges and runs along pounding away it is good evidence that the pound is due to pre-ignition. If, however, it ceases to fire the charges the instant the igniting current is cut off, pre-ignition caused by projecting points or carbon deposit may be excluded. But the hot point on the tube and the time of the spark must not be overlooked. If, however, the pounding keeps up until the engine stops, a tight piston is probably the cause of the trouble.
309. I have frequently shut off the current and gas from a pounding engine and noticed it stop dead sooner than you should expect it to. And when endeavoring to turn the fly-wheel

over by hand the piston stuck tight in the cylinder. A few minutes' rest, allowing it to cool, will loosen up the piston.

310. If a piston is made to fit the cylinder too snugly it will usually result in pounding in the cylinder when the engine is put under a heavy load. The cylinder thump or pound is a deep, heavy pound, while a loose fly-wheel or loose crank bearing is indicated by a thump more of the clicking variety. Then there is a BARKING NOISE, due to the escape of the EXPLOSIVE FORCE PAST THE CYLINDER RINGS. This is easily distinguished from either of the others.
311. The object is to locate the cause of thump or pound wherever it is and remove it. Any one who is able to find the cause of the trouble will no doubt find a remedy that will soon correct the difficulty.
312. If pre-ignition is the cause the pounding will cease as soon as the combustion chamber is cleared of the carbon deposit, the projecting point causing the firing is removed, the time of the spark set later or the flame on the tube elevated.
313. If the cylinder rings allow the explosion to pass, making a barking noise, they should be either replaced by new ones well fitted into their grooves and also to the cylinder, or the old ones should be dressed with a fine file, on their surface, so as to bear at all

points of their circumference on the cylinder wall.

314. If the knock is in the crosshead it may be relieved by tightening up the bearing. Care must be exercised lest you get it too tight, which will make it knock more than ever.
315. If the knock is in the crank pin box it is best to take it up a little at a time. A loose fly-wheel must never be allowed to run until it is thoroughly keyed to the shaft and perfectly tightened.
316. I might add that pre-ignition is liable to cause undue expansion of the piston and cause it to stick in the cylinder. In such instances it is not proper to dress the piston until pre-ignition is corrected. A piston that sticks when pre-ignition occurs may run all right when pre-ignition ceases. The cause of this undue expansion of the piston from pre-ignition is the extreme heat the piston encounters while firing the charge before the end of the compression stroke.
317. Don't conclude that a THUMP, POUND OR THUD about an engine is always due to some trouble in the cylinder. Look for such causes as the following:
- First—Pre-ignition (premature firing).
 - Second—Badly worn or broken piston rings.
 - Third—The explosive force escaping by the piston.
 - Fourth—Improper setting of a valve.

Fifth—A badly worn piston.

Sixth—Piston striking some projecting point or foreign body in the combustion chamber.

Seventh—A loose crosshead bearing.

Eighth—A loose crank pin bearing.

Ninth—A loose nut or journal box cap.

Tenth—A fly-wheel or pulley loose on the shaft.

Eleventh—A broken spoke, hub or rim in fly-wheel or pulley.

Twelfth—Lost motion in any bearing, gear or governor.

319. The sound produced by pre-ignition may be described as a DEEP, HEAVY POUND.

320. A loose fly-wheel causes a thump or sometimes a sort of metallic grating sound.

321. A loose crosshead or crank bearing makes a thud or knock.

322. A click will usually direct attention to a loose nut or cracked rim, spoke or hub, on pulley or fly-wheel.

323. LOSS OF POWER.—The loss of power is due principally to leaky valves, misfiring and choked inlet or exhaust passage. A bent exhaust lever or lost motion by reason of a worn condition of the cam and cam wheel or roller, which will prevent a full and free opening of the valve, will cause a constricted passage.

324. Under leaky valves may be considered leaky piston rings, or any point about the

cylinder where part of the explosive force escapes while it is driving the piston on its working stroke.

325. The valves, if leaking, should be taken out and thoroughly cleaned and ground into their seats with powdered emery and lubricating oil.

326. If the cylinder rings are so worn as to become leaky or allow escape of the explosive force, they must be replaced by new ones, and it is sometimes necessary to put the piston into a lathe and true up the grooves to fit the new rings. If any point of leak is discovered it should be properly packed or plugged at once.

327. MISFIRING means failing to fire each charge the engine takes, and the remedy has already been given. It consists of examining the battery and all its connections to the terminals, and determining whether the battery is exhausted or not, whether there are broken connections, whether the terminals or other points need cleaning or attention otherwise. If tube ignition is used, whether the tube is hot enough, whether it is heated too high up, whether by deposit or other means the passage from the cylinder to the inside of the tube is closed up. Also determine whether fuel is fed to the engine in proper quantities. May not be getting enough at a charge or even too much.

328. CHOKED INLET PASSAGE.—Nearly

all gas engines are fitted with some kind of a mixing device in the shape of a perforated plate, wire screen, etc. These mixing devices may become occluded with dust, soot, waste, cloth or paper drawn into the inlet pipe. The strangest of all they sometimes become occluded with ice. The rapid vaporization of the gasoline while passing through the mixer may freeze any watery elements in the air and gasoline, and deposit it in the shape of ice in the mixer until it becomes completely occluded.

329. The engine may start off and pull its load easily, and as the ice is gradually deposited in the mixer the engine shows less and less power, until it finally stops. A wait of five or ten minutes will melt the ice sufficiently to allow another short run. Such actions or symptoms should lead one to suspect a frozen up mixer and to look for the cause.
330. In a number of such instances that came under my notice I have simply removed the mixer screen entirely and ran the engine without it, which overcame the trouble entirely.
331. Whatever the cause of a choked inlet, see that the cause is removed.
332. BACK-FIRING. — The explosive force coming out of the mouth of the receiving pipe is called back-firing. Its principal cause is a delayed combustion of the previous charge. When the air entering the cylinder

does not receive a sufficient charge of gas or gasoline it makes a slow burning mixture. This mixture may be so slow in combustion that it continues to burn not only on the working stroke but also on the exhaust stroke of the piston, and there still remains enough flame in the cylinder to fire the fresh incoming charge, which, of course, escapes back through the receiving pipe, the receiving valve being open.

333. Any projecting point of iron in the igniting chamber or chunks of carbon deposited in the cylinder may become heated to a red heat and serve to ignite the incoming charges.
334. Feeding the fuel a little more freely will remedy the back-firing if caused by a weak mixture. If it does not control it chunks of carbon or projecting points of iron or carbon should be looked for and removed if found.
335. OBSTINATE STARTING. — Defective ignition is one of the principal causes, and you have already been told the remedy. But SLOW VAPORIZATION of gasoline in cold weather, OVERCHARGING THE IN-GOING AIR with gas or gasoline when turning an engine over by hand, and WATER IN THE CYLINDER when trying to start, are causes as frequently met with as defective ignition.
336. You can facilitate vaporization of gasoline in cold weather for starting purposes by previously heating some point of the air inlet

pipe, which serves to warm the air as it enters, which in turn vaporizes the gasoline better than cold air.

337. A bottle of gasoline heated by holding it in hot water may be used for starting. The heated gasoline vaporizes easier.
338. To avoid overcharging the ingoing air when turning the wheels over slowly in starting, a starting cup may be used on mouth of receiving pipe instead of turning on gasoline by the needle valve. This gives the initial impulses. After a few impulses are received, by opening the needle valve very slightly and gradually increasing the opening, the proper starting point is found. The valve set at that point will usually start the engine when the wheels are rolled over.
339. If WATER is found in the cylinder it must be removed and the leak stopped before a start is made. Sometimes a leak is so slight that it will not affect the running of the engine after it is started, but will leak enough while the engine is idle to prevent starting.
340. Therefore it is always well to drain the water jacket entirely before stopping the engine, and to start the engine before turning the water on again. Forming a habit of thus draining the water off before stopping the engine will serve an excellent purpose both in a leaky cylinder and in cold weather.
341. GROUND JOINTS that become leaky should be reground with flour of emery and

oil, and wiped perfectly clean after sufficiently ground.

342. LEAKY VALVE STEMS are remedied by reaming out the bearing and putting in a bushing or a larger stem. The stem, of course, must be in line with the bearing centers of the valve seat.

344. If IGNITION GRADUALLY FAILS make the tube hotter. Renew battery or have magneto or generator put in order by an electrician.

345. WEAK EXPLOSIONS, when engine is starting, hardly strong enough to drive engine up to speed, indicates leaky valves.

346. IF SPEED GETS LOWER AND ENGINE FINALLY STOPS, suspect:

First—Irregular ignition; charges not all fired.

Second—Overheated cylinder or piston.

Third—Hot journal or wrist box.

Fourth—Overload on engine.

Fifth—Fuel supply exhausted.

Sixth—Exhaust or receiving valve leaking.

REMEDIES:

First—Repair broken wire connections, clean electrodes or igniting mechanism, repair insulation, renew battery, attend to magneto or sparking dynamo. Heat igniting tube to a higher degree.

Second—Increase supply of cold water and lubricating oil.

Third—Stop engine, examine hot box;

if cut any, dress all rough places, and wipe out all filings or cuttings, readjust boxes to bearings carefully, lubricate well, start engine, and keep a close watch on it for several days. If it shows any tendency to heat, examine again and readjust.

Fourth—Reduce load on engine.

Fifth—Replenish fuel supply.

Sixth—Grind the valve that leaks, to a good seat, with emery flour and oil. Leaky valves and piston rings can be tested by turning the engine wheels over till the piston goes on its compression stroke. If the valves and piston hold, the compression of air causes the piston to rebound. If they leak, you can turn the wheel on over the compression stroke.

347. SMOKE at the end of the exhaust pipe means an over supply of fuel or a surplus of lubricating oil in the cylinder.

349. SMOKE at open end of cylinder indicates that there is either a sand hole in the piston, leaky rings, or that the lubricating oil in the cylinder is decomposed by the heat.

350. Piston taken out and filled full of water will test it for a sand hole or other leak.

351. When piston is out examine rings if broken or worn out, or show by wearing at only one or two places in their circumference that they do not fit the cylinder, replace them with new ones snugly fitted into

the piston grooves, as well as turned to fit the cylinder. If lubricating oil is burning increase supply of cold water.

PART V.

GENERAL INFORMATION

352. **BOUND BOXES.**—When either the crosshead or crank boxes become worn so that they shoulder tightly after all the liners are taken out, without correcting the lost motion or knock, their shoulders must be dressed either in a shaper by a machinist or filed true so that they can be set snugly to the pin they inclose and yet do not shoulder by from one-eighth to a thirty-second of an inch.
353. **LINERS.**—The space between the box shoulders is usually filled in with two to four thin sheets of cardboard or wood fiber, called LINERS.
354. **LINERS REMOVED.**—As the boxes wear one liner at a time is removed and the nuts on the boxes set up a little closer.
355. **SETTING A BOX.**—Never set a box so close as to bind the pin or shaft it encloses. But set it close enough to prevent it knocking. Set the nuts, holding the box, up equally. Bring them up gradually to—

gether. Never set one up tight before bringing the other up. Don't be in a hurry. Don't set the boxes haphazard. Try the box after setting by turning the wheels over to see if it works tight and stiff. If so, it is too tight. Use judgment, otherwise you will have a ruined box.

356. PINS WORN OUT OF TRUE should be calipered and dressed round again with a file, or, better, put into a lathe and trued up with a tool and file. This refers principally to the CROSSHEAD or PISTON PIN, and the CRANK PIN.

357. CUT BOXES.—Scrape the box or file it smooth with a fine file. Do the same with the pin by dressing off all the ridges and grooves.

358. HOT BOXES.—Watch all the bearings on your engine closely, especially while new. If any of them run hot stop your engine and examine carefully for the cause. If too tight loosen it up a little; if it bears heavy on one side dress the point carefully where it shows the most wear; if a burr or high point on the shaft or pin dress it down smooth, but don't let the box run hot very long at a time.

359. RE-BABBITTING A BOX.—If you have never seen a box rebabbitted you had better not undertake it until you have called in some one who has had experience to assist you. But if your judgment is good and

you have sufficient confidence in your ability to do a thing properly you can do it alone. The principal things to be observed: Get the box perfectly level, clean out all the old babbitt, have box perfectly dry, adjust shaft in perfect line with the cylinder and the other box or bearing and stay it thoroughly so it will not be jarred out of place while babbitting. Cut cardboard to fit around the shaft and the ends of the box, and then paste the cardboard to the ends of the box by means of putty or clay, and then close up all the creases with it where the babbitt might run out. When all is ready to receive the metal, which should be hot enough to quickly char a small stick thrust into it, put a piece of rosin onto the metal and pour as steadily as possible into the box. Babbitt only half of the box at a time.

360. **PACKING.**—The cylinder head and valve chambers are in many engines packed onto the cylinder. Probably the best “all-round” packing to use, and the most easily procured, is asbestos sheeting or board. Some builders use a packing called RUBBER ASBESTOS. Asbestos will stand the heat better than any other packing known.
361. **LIME DEPOSIT IN WATER CHAMBER.**—Don’t let water chamber become filled with lime deposit. Better clean it out once a month by taking off Cylinder Head

and scraping the jacket free from lime.

362. If you are called on to clean a jacket that is well filled with lime and difficult to remove by scraping, the Hot Oil process of removing the lime is, we think, the least injurious.

363. It is done as follows: Drain all the water from the jacket, plug the lower port into the jacket, and through a short nipple or pipe in the upper port fill the water space with oil. Then run the engine till the oil gets boiling hot. Then let it stand over night to cool. Heat it again to the boiling point next morning by running the engine. Then stop the engine, drain off the oil and let the engine cool off. Then start your engine with water turned on, and run for several hours, and when cooled shut off water and thoroughly drain off all sediment.

364. A BURST WATER JACKET, THE RESULT OF FREEZING.—No matter how much is said or written in the way of caution about draining the cylinder jacket and water pipes, carelessness will prevail in some instances and a freeze-up, bursting the cylinder jacket, will occur.

365. It is fortunate, however, that the cylinder itself is seldom injured by these freeze-ups. Usually only the outer casing bursts, and hence does not interfere with the successful running of the engine.

366. When the exhaust valve chamber is watered the same trouble will occur with it if it is not properly drained.
367. When a freeze-up occurs it results usually only in cracking the water casing and the remedy is to patch it and go ahead.
368. The patching is done as follows: Drain off all water, plug lower pipe connections, fill jacket with a salamoniack solution (one pound to a gallon of water), let stand thirty minutes, drain and run engine five minutes to warm jacket. Stop engine, put solution back into jacket and repeat the process three or four times. If the crack is not too large you will thus form a RUST JOINT that will never leak.
369. If this does not stop the leak, take an iron plate, long enough to cover the crack, shape it to the cylinder, drill quarter-inch holes along each edge about two inches apart, drill and thread holes into the cylinder wall to match, lay a piece of candle wick, well saturated with white lead, on the crack and bolt the plate tightly over it with one-quarter inch round-head screws. When using this method it is best to chip a little crease along the crack to receive part of the wick.
370. HOW TO GRIND A VALVE.—As has already been stated, nearly all modern gas engines use valves of the poppet variety. When it is suspected that a valve needs

grinding, strip the stem of its lock-nuts and spring, and remove the cap or plug over the valve pallet, lift it out and examine the seat.

371. If it does not show a good bright bearing all around it needs grinding, which is done as follows: Apply lubricating oil to the seat of the pallet, then sprinkle on some flour of emery and drop the pallet into its seat. The top of the valve is usually creased to receive a screwdriver bit.
372. With a brace and bit the pallet may be turned round and round for a time and then back and forth in a semi-circle. Work it this way, alternating the movements, for some time. Occasionally lift the valve pallet slightly from its seat, let it drop back and repeat the grinding movements.
373. When the valve turns without any apparent grinding friction take it out, wipe it clean, examine the seat, apply more oil and emery, and put it through another course of grinding.
374. This process may have to be repeated a number of times, but don't get in too much of a hurry to get through.
375. Two hours spent industriously on a valve may prove to be well spent and time saved.
376. When a good bearing seat is secured wipe the valve pallet and stem, as well as the valve seat and sleeve, in which the stem works, entirely free from emery, oil and

grit. Return the pallet to its seat, close up the valve and adjust the spring and lock-nuts to the stem ready for service.

377. In handling a gas engine the first thing to learn is "not to be afraid of it." There is nothing about it that will injure or hurt you unless you allow yourself to become careless.

378. Such incidents as getting arms, legs and clothes caught in the gear shaft, governor or FLY-WHEEL KEY, while the engine is running are results of pure carelessness.

379. It is the engineer's duty to caution others who may be looking at his engine of these dangers.

380. EXPLORING THE INTERIOR OF THE CYLINDER.—It is sometimes necessary to explore the interior of the gas engine cylinder with a lighted candle, for the purpose of locating some sharp projection, burnt carbon, crack or sand hole, etc. When doing this always remember that a CHARGE OF FUEL may remain in the cylinder, and whether the candle is inserted through one of the valve ports or the open end of the cylinder, be sure to keep YOUR FACE away from the opening.

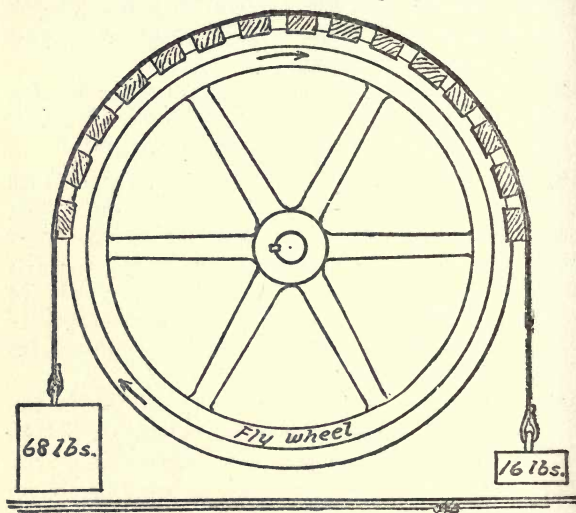
381. The lighted candle will ignite the charge, and the flash through the open port may result in a seriously burnt face. The candle is usually put into the cylinder on the end of a long sharp pointed wire or stick.

HORSE POWER EXPLAINED.

382. Every engine uses a certain per cent of its total power to drive itself.
383. A. H. P.—ACTUAL HORSE POWER means the power an engine has to spare for driving other machinery after driving itself.
384. I. H. P.—INDICATED HORSE POWER is A. H. P. plus the power an engine requires to drive itself.
385. TOTAL POWER of an engine is the same as is its I. H. P. BRAKE HORSE POWER, B. H. P., same as A. H. P.
386. If an engine develops on Brake Test seven Brake Horse Power, or Actual Horse Power, and it takes three H. P. to drive itself, it is therefore properly called a TEN INDICATED and SEVEN ACTUAL or Brake Horse Power. About 75 per cent of the Indicated power should be available for useful or actual H. P.
387. INDICATED HORSE POWER is determined by an instrument called an INDICATOR attached to the compression chamber of the cylinder which is capable of indicating the pressure behind the piston by tracings on a card. The power is figured from the area of this tracing, as follows:
- Multiply the area of the piston in square inches, by the mean effective pressure in pounds per square inch, as shown by the card

tracing, by the number of explosions per minute, by the length, in feet, of the working stroke of the piston, and divide the product by 33,000; the quotient will be the indicated horse power.

388. BRAKE TEST.—A piece of belt with linwood cleats fastened to it with wood screws, as per the following illustration, will



Method of Making Break Test

serve to make an excellent arrangement for testing brake or actual horse power.

389. On each end of this brake a paint bucket with bail or handle hung onto hooks fast-

ened onto the ends will serve to hold small stones or chunks of iron with which to weight the brake and cause sufficient friction.

390. This weight is applied until the engine is pulling all it will pull without materially reducing the speed, and the weights on each side balance or hang clear of the floor.
391. The engine is then left running under its load for from ten to thirty minutes, during which time the speed is counted a number of times, to determine whether the engine holds the same speed.
392. When you have determined the same speed for some time the test may be concluded by stopping the engine.
393. The weights on each end are then weighed and the difference in pounds is the number of pounds pulled by the engine.
394. By multiplying the CIRCUMFERENCE OF THE WHEEL, IN FEET, by the number of pounds pulled, by the number of revolutions per minute, and dividing this product by 33,000, the result will show the Actual or Brake Horse Power of the engine.
395. EXAMPLE.—Diameter fly wheel shown in above cut thirty inches, or two and a half feet. $2\frac{1}{2} \times 3.1416$ equals Cir. 7.85 ft.

Cir. Rev. Lbs.

$$\frac{7.85 \text{ ft.} \times 300 \times 52}{33,000} = 37_{10} \text{ h. p.}$$

396. A power capable of raising 33,000 pounds

one foot high, in one minute, equals one horse power.

TO START A GAS ENGINE.

397. Don't get excited. Go slow. Be sure you are right, then proceed as follows:

First—Clean the engine and all wearing parts thoroughly.

Second—Oil every point where there is any friction, EXCEPT VALVE STEMS and SPARKER SHAFT.

Third—If there is a relief or starting lever on the engine set it so as to relieve the compression. A Pet Cock is sometimes used for this purpose instead of a lever. It should be open.

Fourth—Switch in Battery current. If tube ignitor is used the flame against the tube should be started first thing. While the tube is heating, oil up, etc.

Fifth—When hot enough open the throttle valve slightly so as to admit a light charge of fuel when the engine is turned over. REMEMBER you are more liable to give the engine too much fuel in starting than not enough.

Sixth—Turn the fly wheels of the engine rapidly forward until it gets an impulse. Three or four revolutions should be enough.

Seventh—After the engine has had three or four impulses and gained some speed,

throw out relief lever or close relief Pet-Cock.

Eighth—Start oil from lubricating cup on cylinder. Twenty drops per minute while engine is new. Less will do later on.

Ninth—Let water into jacket chamber from water supply.

TO STOP A GAS ENGINE.

398. First—Shut off water supply.

Second—DRAIN CYLINDER ALWAYS; TAKE NO CHANCES OF A FREEZE-UP, if you want to avoid trouble.

Third—Close cylinder oiler.

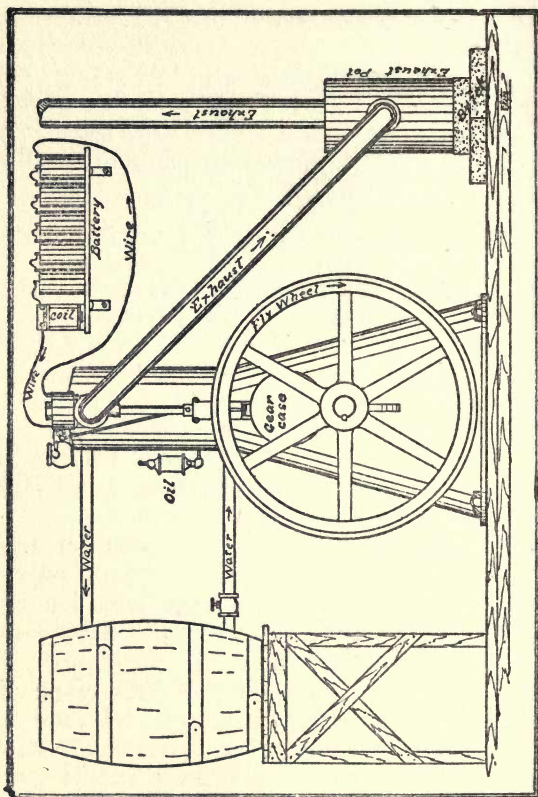
Fourth—Shut off gas or gasoline.

Fifth—Switch out the battery current.

Sixth—Wipe engine clean and see that it is in good shape for its next run.

399. While cleaning the engine after each day's run notice all the points of adjustment that are liable to need attention and see that all nuts, bolts and cap screws are tight or properly set.

400. Notice also the condition of the crank pin journal and other bearings. If any of them are hot, locate the cause of the heating, and, if possible, remove it before starting the engine for work.



401. Before leaving the engine for the night see to it that the gas or gasoline is shut off and properly confined in the tank or pipes,

that the battery current is switched out and that everything is in apple-pie order for the next run.

402. The illustration on the previous page is intended, in a general way, to show the manner of connecting up the water, exhaust pipe and battery to the engine.

403. You will notice the bottom of the cooling tank is about on a level with the inlet to the engine. I think this is a very important point to remember. It is better to have as few obstructions as possible in the water connections, where a natural circulation is expected. Therefore the cooling tank should be so placed that the water through the lower pipe to the engine will flow at least on a level and not upward. There are no objections to placing the tank above the engine.

404. It is also well to observe that the lower pipe is connected a few inches above the bottom into the side of the tank, thus arranging a space below the pipe outlet to collect any sediment the water may contain, which would otherwise be carried into the cooling chamber of the cylinder, and tend to obstruct it.

405. The bottom of the cooling tank should be provided with a drain cock or plug, through which the tank may occasionally be drained of all sediment and thoroughly cleaned.

406. The cooling tank, exhaust drum and battery can of course be placed and connected to suit the location of the engine. They do not need to occupy the positions in relation to the engine as shown in the cut. We prefer that exhaust should lead straight up from the engine rather than downward, as shown in cut.
407. Place them where they are most convenient, connecting up the water and exhaust with as few "L's" and turns as possible.
408. The pump and gravity feed systems for supplying gasoline to the engine have been fully described, as also the method of piping up the gas. See index.
409. GASOLINE, BENZINE, NAPHTHA, KEROSENE and the kindred hydro-carbons are the products of crude mineral oil.
410. They are separated from the CRUDE OIL by a process of distillation. The process is very similar to that of generating steam from water.
411. By the application of heat, water raised to a temperature of 212 degrees Fahrenheit changes from a liquid to a gaseous state, called steam. This conversion is only temporary. If steam is confined and cooled to a certain point it will quickly return to its liquid state, water, by the process known as condensation.
412. CRUDE MINERAL OIL subjected to heat will give off in the form of vapor such products as Gasoline, Benzine, Naphtha,

etc. The degree of heat at which these products are separated are comparatively low. Various degrees of heat will separate the distinct products. As a means of illustration, we will say that crude oil raised to a temperature of 110 degrees gives off vapor which, when cooled, will liquefy into what is known as naphtha, benzine at 125 degrees, and gasoline at 140 degrees. These degrees of temperature are not authentic—simply used to illustrate.

413. After these lighter products are separated there yet remains the thick, oily liquid from which the various lubricating oils are prepared.
414. Paraffine oil is one of the principal products of crude oil, and the oily sediment which frequently accumulates in the bottom of the tank or can in which gasoline is confined is **PARAFFINE OIL**, which distils over in small quantity with the vapor of gasoline.
415. This oil might be finally separated from the gasoline by reconvertng it into vapor several times and carrying it as such into a clean retort each time.
416. It should be remembered that gasoline that is practically free from paraffine can easily be adulterated by putting it into unclean containers. For instance, we take chemically pure gasoline and put it into a wooden barrel or tank, that previously con-

tained oil which had not been cleaned, it is easy to understand how the penetrating qualities of gasoline acting on the oil-soaked staves will extract the oil particles and deposit them on the bottom of the vessel because of their lower specific gravity. In the same way other sediments than oil may get mixed with gasoline.

417. The comparatively low degree of heat necessary to produce gasoline from oil makes it a fluid that is very volatile and easily vaporized in our warm summer temperature, and, therefore, difficult to confine.
418. The best kind of a tank to use in confining gasoline is made of well soldered, galvanized iron, fitted with a safety valve, which will allow escape of any gas that may accumulate to a certain pressure within the tank during warm weather.
419. A tank containing gasoline should never be so placed as to be exposed to the direct rays of the sun. This is done with many gasoline engine supply tanks, and the result is an enormous waste of gasoline by direct vaporization, which loss is generally attributed to over-consumption by the engine, very much to the detriment of its reputation.
420. The object of burying a gasoline tank in the ground is to provide a cool place for it, which reduces vaporization to a minimum. The way this is ordinarily done is **BAD PRACTICE**. The proper way to do it is

to provide an underground chamber something similar to a cistern. This chamber should be large enough so that when the tank is placed in the center there is room enough all around it to admit of thorough inspection. It should be walled up with brick and cemented, so as to exclude water, and covered in such a manner as to admit of easy access.

421. If the tank is to be placed on top of the ground outside of the building in which the engine is located it should be protected from the heat of the sun by putting a small building over it.
422. Storing gasoline in a wooden barrel is not economy by any means. The wood is porous enough to allow considerable loss by vaporization.
423. When gasoline is exposed to air that is above the freezing point it gives off a vapor or gas which mixes or blends with the atmosphere, and if exposed long enough the quantity so exposed will all disappear or pass off into the air in the form of vapor, leaving only the paraffine residue or other sediment.
424. Several manufacturers of gasoline advise me that common stove gasoline is especially purified, and does not originally contain any residue.
425. It would therefore appear that stove gasoline, which is ordinarily supposed to test about 74 degrees, is the quality best adapted

for use in the gasoline engine, although the writer has knowledge of engine running successfully on gasoline testing anywhere from 60 degrees to 88 degrees.

426. DISTILLATE, which might be called a low grade of gasoline, and which we are advised tests about 55 degrees, is successfully used to operate the majority of gas engines in California.
427. Much of the RESIDUE or oily substance which accumulates in the bottom of a gasoline tank is, in my opinion, due to the use of unclean barrels or tanks in which it is confined for storage or shipping purposes.
428. Another method of getting rid of this oily substance is to regard it as so much "dirt" and occasionally pour off all the gasoline and clean the container thoroughly from all sediment.
429. Gasoline engines often refuse to operate successfully on account of this sediment blockading some part of the supply passage between the tank and the engine.
430. Unfortunately the consumer of gasoline occupies the same position in the purchase of gasoline as the consumer of milk does in its purchase. They both buy "dirt." The only difference is that the latter, after buying it is expected to digest it as well.
431. In case of fire due to gasoline, use fine earth, flour or sand on top of the burning liquid. Never use water; it will only serve

to float the gasoline and consequently spread the flame.

432. GASOLINE TANK EXPLOSIONS are often due to a pressure within a tightly closed container, caused by high temperature, which vaporizes or gasifies the liquid within.

433. The changing of the liquid to the gaseous state causes expansion, and if there is no vent or safety valve connection the pressure within rises to a point sufficient to cause an explosion.

PART VI.

DYNAMOS AND MAGNETO IGNITION.

IN GAS AND GASOLINE ENGINES.

434. The necessity of a sure method of ignition in the operation of Hydro-carbon motors cannot be overestimated. I may safely say that more trouble arises from defective ignition in the use of Hydro-carbon engines than from all other causes combined. •

The importance, therefore, of some arrangement, device or mechanism, capable of constantly generating a good strong current of electricity, with the least possible variation in its constant strength, is readily apparent. A good current properly applied is to the gas engineer what quinine was to the physician in malarial times.

435. Experts on the operation of gas and gasoline motors are very particular about the igniting apparatus on their machines. When called to a motor giving trouble they will at once inquire or examine into the ignition apparatus, and especially the electric current strength. If this current strength drops below a certain standard, say $2\frac{1}{2}$ amperes and 10 volts, the expert suspicions that the current strength is getting low, and he searches for the cause.

A high amperage and low voltage may ignite successfully. Such a current may be had from a battery on short circuit. A five-cell Edison Primary Battery, Type "R," may show on short circuit 15 amperes and only three to four volts.

436. The importance with which reliable ignition is considered may be demonstrated by the fact that a well-equipped automobile or touring car, which is required to make long and continuous runs, usually carries a battery of from two to four magneto or dynamo generators, which are backed up by a couple of good fluid or storage batteries, so that in case of disability of one of the generators the current from another may be switched in immediately.

437. Of the different methods of ignition used on Hydro-carbon motors, viz.: Flame, Hot Tube, Catalytic and Electric, the latter has easily taken the lead, and is the one with

which this chapter especially deals. Flame ignition has become practically obsolete. Tube ignition is described elsewhere in this work. Also electric ignition in connection with battery current.

438. Catalytic ignition may be defined as ignition or combustion resulting from high compression pressure within the combustion chamber. This method is winning some advocates, and some ingenious devices are applied to accomplish the result. The combustion chamber may be heated by torch for the purpose of igniting the first charges in starting. After the motor is in operation the constant firing of fresh charges within the combustion chamber keeps it hot enough to explode them regularly under the heavy compression pressure.

439. The popularity which the electric current enjoys as an ignitor is the stimulus which is bringing out many new and valuable devices for generating the electric current in proper strength to ignite the charges, under the greatest variation of proportional gas and air mixtures allowable in Hydrocarbon motors.

Those devices which appeal to the good judgment of gas engine operators at present are known as dynamic generators, dynamo or magnetic ignitors.

440. The dynamo is a small generator, constructed on principles similar to the dyna-

mo used for electric lighting purposes, a miniature machine with current capacity only sufficient to produce a good strong igniting spark at all times. Storage and other batteries are used in connection with some of these dynamos for starting purposes. They require a certain speed before they will generate an igniting current. This speed must not vary to any great extent. If much below the normal the current will be too weak for igniting purposes. If speed runs above the normal there is danger of burning out the field windings. Therefore, if the dynamo were set at a speed to generate an igniting current, when the engine is turned over by hand, it would quickly burn out its field coils under full speed of the engine, unless some governing device were used; consequently, the engine is started from a battery current, and when the dynamo has gained a generating speed, which is attained at the full speed of the engine, its current is switched onto the engine, and the battery current is cut out.

441. The use of the battery for starting purposes is one of the objections urged by competitive manufacturers against a dynamo requiring it, and if only superficially considered, it might be regarded as a real objection. The only adverse claim that can be urged against it is the expense of maintaining a battery and dynamo both at the

same time; but when it is remembered that the engine or motor is "the power behind the throne" of whatever machine or machinery it is expected to operate, and that it depends for its good behavior, to a large extent, on a good, strong, continuous, week-in and week-out electric current, and that we depend almost wholly on the engine to accomplish our purpose, I regard it a matter of economy rather than one of expense to back up the dynamo with a good electrical battery, and vice versa, so that in case of disability of the one we may have the other to rely on during the time which we would otherwise be shut down for repairs.

442. There are, however, generators fitted with ingenious governing or speed controlling devices, which allow a generating speed of the dynamo when the engine is turned over by hand, and as the speed of the engine increases to its normal the governor on the dynamo controls it by keeping it within the bounds of its speed limit.

Such an outfit is designed to discard all other current generators. The dynamo is relied upon to START and OPERATE the engine successfully and entirely of its own accord.

These speed controllers on igniting dynamos are in the most instances doing the work expected of them in a thorough, efficient and

satisfactory manner, and can be considered perfectly reliable.

443. In addition to the dynamo generator for igniting purposes there is another generator called the magneto, which is extensively used and which has many warm advocates. The magneto depends on permanent magnets for exciting fields. It has no field windings and, consequently, the danger which is urged against the dynamo of burning out its field windings under high speeds, is obviated in the magneto. It is, therefore, susceptible to much greater variation of speed without injury than the dynamo. But while this is true, it must not be inferred that the magneto is without disadvantages. The exciting magnets may lose their magnetism, which, of course, means that they would fail to generate a current.
444. It is the opinion of the author that a machine, whether dynamo or magneto, will give the best service, and last longer at a uniform rate of speed than under a variable speed.
445. It is, of course, the desire of all manufacturers to develop and produce a machine that will as readily as possible adapt itself to the various conditions which it may encounter, and since variation in speed is an adverse condition constantly met with they have given the matter of speed special attention by reason of which some of them

may be led to make extravagant claims for their product.

446. Conservativeness in the consideration of the excellent points claimed by each manufacturer is the safest guide to the purchaser. To make a good selection one should carefully consider the advantageous points claimed by different manufacturers, as well as the disadvantages urged against each other.

When you have made your choice, back up your judgment with the belief that you have as good a machine as the market affords, give it such attention as a good machine deserves; study its parts and their action until you are intimately acquainted with its makeup, and your success with it is assured.

447. Other generators on the market might aptly be termed Magneto-Dynamos, or a combination of dynamo and magneto.

448. This construction is similar to a magneto, with the exception that their permanent magnets are reinforced by field windings.

449. As indicated in the description of the dynamo and magneto, the former depends on its field from which its current is generated; the latter depends on permanent magnets for the generating of its current. The rapidly revolving armature between the wound fields of the former excites them, and a current is

generated. The armature revolving rapidly between permanent magnets in the latter generates a current.

450. A current of electricity passed through a wire coil around a piece of soft steel magnetizes the steel. Consequently, the field windings, around the already magnetized magnets, or permanent magnets, tend to intensify their magnetism and keep their generating qualities up to a high standard. It must, therefore, follow that such an arrangement would obviate the loss of magnetism in the permanent magnet, an objection urged against the ordinary magneto.
451. However, it might be well to state in this connection that if this machine is run backward it will demagnetize its magnets. Therefore, the reader may at once conclude that there is an objection to this Magneto-Dynamo. If further consideration is given the matter it will be seen that there is no need of running this machine backward. In fact, by changing two wire connections between the field coil and the armature pole the backward movement above referred to becomes forward. Therefore, the machine is easily reversible, and will run in either direction and generate a good strong current.
452. All that is required of the operator is to know the wire connections between armature and fields, which are usually plainly illus-

trated and described in an instruction sheet sent with the machine.

453. Another advantage claimed for these machines is that the magnet or field windings serve in the capacity of a spark coil, which obviates the necessity of a spark coil, and especially so if the generating speed can be made low enough to ignite the charge when turning the engine wheels over by hand, as in starting, and yet not injure the windings when the engine is at its full speed, which we are informed is easily within the capacity of the generator.
454. Since referring to the spark coil we desire to say that it has been in use as a necessary fixture ever since electric ignition was introduced, no matter what the source of electric current, whether storage, dry or fluid battery, Magneto or Dynamo. For the ordinary contact or touch spark a SHORT, THICK spark coil connected somewhere into the circuit will produce the best results.
455. For JUMP SPARK ignition an especially designed spark coil is necessary, called the Jump Spark Coil.
456. The difference in operation of the ordinary spark coil and the Jump Spark coil is that the former requires a make-and-break arrangement which produces contact and separation of the terminal points within the igniting chamber.

The latter produces a spark or succession

of sparks, which leap through an air space between two terminal points, without contact of these points, which are stationary, and located within the exploding or igniting chamber.

457. The same strength of electric current will produce successful ignition with either coil, provided the coils and ignition arrangement are adapted to the current. In further explanation of this fact I might add that by a series of tests we produce successful ignition and operation of a gas engine by first using the ordinary spark coil with make-and-break contact within igniting chamber for several hours, then changing the igniting mechanism to the Jump Spark method we got equally good results, using the same battery and engine with both methods. Similar tests with magneto current produced a successful ignition with either method, demonstrating that a properly constructed battery or generator producing a current of sufficient magnitude will successfully ignite the charges with either the contact or jump spark method. However, jump spark ignition requires a current of greater amperage than is necessary with the touch spark and which is liable to destroy the contact points. Hence, builders of magnetos and spark machines wind their machines a little different for a jump than a contact spark.

458. In the panorama of electric ignition, inventions, improvements and advancements, the changes are so rapid that one has hardly time to stop long enough to describe the newest arrival until another, for which greater claims are made, appears on the scene. HIGH TENSION GENERATORS are now in use which are designed to produce a jump spark of powerful ignition qualities without the introduction of a spark coil in the circuit. It is claimed for these devices that the current is taken from the dynamo terminals at an extremely high pressure, directly to the spark plug, where it is delivered with such force as to enable it to bridge an air gap of an inch, with a powerful, hot, flaming spark. The high-tension magneto is very effective and popular in automobile ignition service at this time.
459. Leaving the reference to what appear to the author to be the most reliable igniting generators now on the market we will attempt to devote a few pages to the care and successful handling of these little machines. I desire to say as a word of caution, that it is not well to condemn a generator or magneto because the engine to which it is connected goes dead under its current or even its lack of current. The little generator may be all right, even if it produces no current at all. If the engine goes out of

operation apparently of its own accord be sure that you determine whether the trouble is with the generator or not. If a battery is used in connection with this generator, and the engine starts off and runs successfully from the battery, but goes down when the generator current is switched in, then it is reasonably certain that the generator or the wire connections between it and the engine are at fault, not necessarily so, however. Some generators require a little time after starting to pick up or saturate their fields, before which a current is not generated. And if the engine is started on the battery, and switched onto the dynamo before it has had time to pick up, the engine will stop; therefore it is always well to run on the battery for a few minutes before switching in the current from the generator.

460. Under these conditions should it fail, LOOK FOR LITTLE THINGS, before giving up in despair. I'll relate an actual occurrence. It may help you. Mr. M— had worked all day, up to 4 P. M., trying to get his engine started from his generator. (He had no battery.) At 4 P. M. we answered his call for help, and found him irritable, damning the dynamo and denouncing it as a fraud. Inside of two minutes we found one of the brushes—two at opposite points of the commutator, you know—by reason of dirt accumulation, got stuck in

the brush holder, and could not touch the commutator. Took it out, cleaned it, and also the other one, rubbed the commutator a little, turned the engine over, and off it went. Don't let this happen to you.

461. Later on the same fellow literally soaked the dynamo in oil in his effort to give it sufficient lubrication. The result, of course, was another shutdown, fit of anger, and general condemnation of the spark generator. Cleaning and wiping off the surplus oil, again started it off in good shape. This fellow was constantly overlooking the little things, and believed, as some one told him, that his armature was burned out, or that the magnets had lost their magnetism.
462. Nearly all of these little machines are fitted with wick oilers, and they need to be supplied with oil every three or four days and only a little at a time.
463. The ends of the brushes which are in contact with the armature sometimes need to be touched up with a fine file to clean them from dirt accumulations. The commutator can be cleaned with fine emery cloth waste or chamois skin, while in motion.
464. If the brushes wear off and get too short, so that the springs which hold them to the commutator can no longer hold them firmly, new ones should be put into the brush holders. We found in one instance that the little

pulley was loose on the armature shaft, which caused trouble for some time.

465. If you ever have occasion to remove the armature from a magneto, be sure that you protect the magnets by putting a small iron bar across the open ends of the magnets. This makes the connection between the open ends of the magnets and preserves their magnetism, which they would otherwise lose.
466. It is also well to guard against running these little generators backward. Magnetism in some of them may be lost thereby, and they may be otherwise injured. If one of them has its field windings burned out, or has lost its magnetism, it is best to send it to the manufacturers for repairs.
467. Sometimes the insulation around the brush holders get damp and causes trouble. Removing it and drying it, by either wiping it dry or baking it in a dry heat for a short time, will overcome the trouble and cause the generator to work successfully again.
468. Above all, we would advise any one installing one of these little generators to provide it with an absolutely clean place, and one which can easily be kept clean. It should be so located that no oil from the engine or other machinery can be spattered on it. It should be excluded from dust and dampness by incasing it in a roomy box if the room in which it is placed is at all exposed to dust, dirt or dampness.

469. If the friction wheel is used on the generator for driving purposes, it (the generator) should be set so that the little friction wheels sets squarely against the face of the fly-wheel of the engine and so that it is in direct line with the fly-wheel. Otherwise, the face of the little friction pulley would soon wear out of true and cause trouble. It should also be set up snug enough against the fly-wheel to insure a generative speed of the generator when the engine is running at its normal speed.

470. The easiest way to operate a generator successfully is to keep its *parts* and *surroundings* perfectly clean and dry.

If you will do this, you will seldom have occasion to correct what might otherwise appear to be the fault of the generator. Dampness and Dirt are the direct enemies of the successful running of the generator. Lubricating oil becomes *dirt* when used to freely.

471. If copper wire brushes are used, they should be soaked in oil occasionally to prevent their cutting off the commutator.

Carbon brushes will not cut the commutator, but may become glazed, which will prevent a reliable contact. The ends should be filed off to a new surface.

PART VII.

AUTOMOBILE AND MOTOR BOAT ENGINE TROUBLES.

472. It would not be possible in this or any number of chapters to point out every trouble that may be encountered with a Boat or Automobile gasoline motor. But we hope to here enumerate some of those most commonly met with and to give such hints as may be of real value to the person in charge.
473. VAPORIZERS.—Owing to the variable speeds required in motors on automobiles and boats the float feed carbureters are considered necessary. They are a fruitful source of trouble, especially in starting. They are not always ready when the operator is. Sometimes they need flushing. That is pressing down the float to let more gasoline run in so as to flood the spray nozzle. One must be sure that gasoline comes down when he depresses the float. If not the float needle inlet or pipe from the tank may be clogged or there may be no FUEL in the tank.
474. One of the first things an operator should know is the details of the carbureter on his engine and just how it is designed to perform its function. Familiarity with it will enable him to quickly locate the cause

of any trouble with it. Something may go wrong with the float or its needle point. It may not shut off the gasoline properly. This will flood the vaporizer and the mixture will be too rich and will not ignite.

475. Carbureters with spring valves and air throttles may go wrong in the mechanism sustaining those parts and they will not adjust themselves to the conditions met until the cause is removed.
476. The vaporizer to all appearances may be working all right and yet the engine refuse to go. Look for a leak in the inlet passage BETWEEN the CARBURETER and ENGINE. Maybe a packing blown out or hole somewhere letting in air.
477. WATER in the gasoline? Yes! It has often caused no end of trouble and a few drops go a long ways in ruffling the feelings of even a good patient operator. Every supply pipe leading to the carbureter should be fitted with a trap where the water or sediment may collect before reaching the vaporizer. This trap should be cleaned often.
478. There may be plenty of gasoline in the tank and yet none appear at the vaporizer. An automobile may be standing on an incline so that the vaporizer is higher than the gasoline in the tank. If this condition is found and corrected and still there is no gasoline at the vaporizer, blow into the tank and endeavor thereby to dislodge any plug

or occlusion in the pipe. If this is not effective the pipe between the tank and the vaporizer should be taken down and every joint and union should be carefully looked into or at least LOOKED THROUGH to see if there is a clear opening from one end to the other.

479. Gasline will not vaporize equally well in every carbureter in cold weather, and in some cases the engine is hard to start on account of cold weather. Then warming the engine cylinders, better the interior, by means of a plumber's blow torch through some of the plug ports to the combustion chamber, will invariably remove the cause of this trouble.
480. If the writer had occasion to use a boat or automobile in cold weather a gasoline pressure blow torch would certainly be one of the articles of my equipment, along with a box of matches. A flame from it can be directed to any part of the engine or inlet pipes or carbureter. It becomes useful for a variety of warming purposes on a cold day miles away from a good warm fire.
481. If no torch is at hand, filling the engine jacket with hot water will answer the purpose, or a red hot iron poked into the mouth of the air inlet while cranking the engine.
482. Trouble sometimes arises because of want of proper suction force through the vaporizer. The inlet passage may be choked or

the airlift valve, where one is used, may stick or its spring may be too stiff. If there is anything wrong with the exhaust valve, allowing a leak at that point, the air will be drawn into the cylinder through the exhaust instead of through the vaporizer. When trouble is experienced in starting, the suction through the vaporizer should always be tested.

483. While it is absolutely necessary for one to thoroughly familiarize himself with the vaporizer it is infinitely more important that he should understand every detail of the IGNITING APPARATUS, because here is where the large percentage of troubles emanate from in motor boat or automobile engines. There really is no end to the variety of apparently trivial causes that may knock out successful ignition, and when ignition fails it is "all off" until the trouble is corrected.
484. Engines for motor purposes are equipped either with the hammer-brake spark mechanism or with the jump spark ignition method.
485. In either case electric battery magneto or dynamo may be used to generate the current necessary to make the igniting spark, consequently the source or generator of the current is a most important item for consideration.
486. We believe a motor boat or automobile should always carry what might be known

as plenty of reserve generators. By this we mean that it is wise for any motorist to go prepared to avoid trouble or rather meet and overcome it. If batteries are used an extra set should always be carried to meet emergencies. If any of the variety of generators on the market is supplying the current, a dry battery might help out at the most critical time.

487. A generator connected to a storage battery would seem proof against emergency troubles. But there are instances where the boat is left to the mercy of the waves and the automobile becomes inactive in some lonely spot on the country road for want of a reserve generator. A dynamo or magneto may go wrong mechanically or electrically almost instantly. A storage battery may not have been as fully charged as supposed. A dry battery may have lost a part of its generating energy on account of age, or is too nearly exhausted from constant use to be depended on for a venturesome trip. The same may be true of any type of battery adopted.

488. It is indeed wise for one in trouble NOT TO FORGET the source of his igniting current. He should learn how to test batteries. A combination volt and ammeter is an excellent instrument to carry in the vest pocket for testing the strength of the battery. From 8 to 10 volts and 10 to 25 amperes is

good. When the amperage drops below 15 trouble may be expected soon. In fact when the writer finds his battery below 12 amperes, especially if a dry battery, he doesn't feel safe with it unless he has something in reserve to fall back upon.

489. There are writers who recommend 6 or 8 amperes as sufficient. Our experience tells us that this is too low for reliable jump spark work and we are inclined to advise from 15 to 20 amperes for jump spark.

490. The hammer-break spark, which is also known as the TOUCH SPARK, can be worked successfully on a lower amperage than the jump spark. We are firm believers in PLENTY of ignition ammunition and we want it GOOD and STRONG all of the time, consequently prefer a higher amperage than necessary rather than one that is just a shade too low to work the coil successfully.

491. Dry batteries are now offered that show (in each cell) from 25 to 30 amperes. Much is claimed for them on successful jump spark ignition. But if you have 6 cells connected in series, each separately showing 25 amperes, you must not expect the series to show six times 25, or 150 amperes. The series will show 25 amperes same as the single cell. But if each cell shows $1\frac{1}{2}$ volts, 6 cells will show 9 volts in series. Storage batteries need only be tested for

voltage, and each cell should show from 1.7 to 2.1 volts.

492. Every person taking charge of an engine should seek to know at once whether the engine he is to handle is fitted with a make and break or jump spark mechanism and then familiarize himself as fully as possible with it.
493. The principal differences between the two methods of ignition are that the HAMMER BREAK METHOD has its contact points that make and break the circuit, inside of the cylinder, in the ignition chamber, a simple primary spark coil and only two wires that connect the battery to the engine.
494. The JUMP SPARK METHOD has its make and break mechanism on the outside, usually on the cam shaft or on a rod driven from the camshaft. In a two-cycle the circuit breaker may be right on the crank shaft or on a shaft that is driven at the same speed as the crank shaft. An interrupter or vibrator on the coil and at least three wire connections with the engine.
495. One can test the hammer break igniter for trouble by detaching the wire from the insulated electrode and brushing the bare end of the wire off some bright metal part of the engine when the current switch is closed. If the battery or generator is producing a good current and there is no short

circuit between the battery and engine a BRIGHT FLASH or SPARK is seen at the point of slipping off. And if this occurs regularly any short circuit between the battery and engine can be excluded.

496. If the batteries test up well in voltage and amperage one can feel assured that the trouble has its source in the engine and not in the battery coil or wiring up to the engine. But if brushing off, from some bright part of the engine, the bare end of the wire, with the other wire attached to its binding post, does not produce a spark or only a very faint one, then a weak battery, a broken down spark coil or a short circuit somewhere in the wire or battery connections should be suspected and looked for.
497. When, however, the spark is good at the slipping off point, push the contact points together and brush the end of the wire over the outer end of the insulated electrode. This should make a good spark. If not, something is wrong on the inside and possibly the points are not in contact as supposed.
498. On the other hand, when the contact points STAND APART as they should, excepting when brought together by mechanical action, there SHOULD BE NO SPARK when the wire is slipped off the end of the insulated electrode. If there is a spark it is a sure sign that there is a short circuit be-

tween the electrodes, either by bridged carbon across the inner end of the insulation, a small metal bridge outside or in, or a broken insulation.

499. Sometimes a worn condition of the mechanism which actuates the movable contact point will prevent its making a firm and complete contact, consequently no ignition can occur. The separation spring may become so weak or out of adjustment as to allow a constant contact of the points, which may not prevent an igniting spark, but it is extremely wasteful of battery strength. It allows a constant current which wears out the life of the battery in short order.
500. Sometimes a broken wire, within the insulation, causes trouble, and the only way to test it is to string a new wire along the side of the suspected one, touching both ends of the connections. If a spark results by the spark test it indicates the old wire is at fault. But if there is no spark the other wires should be suspected and tested in the same way.
501. When jump spark ignition is in use one should be sure that he understands the primary and secondary circuits and their use. The jump spark coil, while wound around the same core, has two coils that are practically independent of each other. The primary coil is wound immediately around

the core or bundle of soft wires and consists of a single piece of insulated wire wound closely in layers one on top of the other, and when completed each end of this wire is attached to a binding post from which the wire, transmitting the current, are carried to the battery and engine.

502. This is known as the primary coil through which the current from the battery runs. The coil is covered with a hard rubber tube slipped over the coil. Around this tube is wound the layers of the secondary coil. The hard rubber tube completely insulates and separates the primary from the secondary coil. They have no metal connection and are made of two different sizes and pieces of wire.

503. The vibrator is attached to the primary circuit and so also is the CONDENSER, which is an arrangement on the inside of the coil case or box. The jump spark coil is sometimes erroneously called the condenser.

504. When the current from the battery is started through the primary coil it magnetizes the core, the end of which attracts the vibrator hammer to it. This pulls the vibrator away from the point of the adjusting screw over which the current passed, and the instant the vibrator spring leaves this point, the circuit is broken, the core is demagnetized, consequently no longer at-

tracts the vibrator, which being released drops back, on account of the spring tension, against the same point again making the circuit, magnetizing the core and pulling the vibrator away from the connection.

505. By this automatic make and break arrangement the vibrator is in violent action continually, causing what is known as an interrupted current in the primary coil.

506. This vibrating or interrupted current, in the primary, causes an induced current of high voltage and consequently high tension in the secondary coil.

508. The wire from the secondary coil carrying this high tension current is attached to the spark plug, consequently it is the high tension secondary current that actually makes the spark. The primary current from the battery does not reach the spark plug at all.

509. At this point where the vibrator spring comes in contact with the adjusting screw there are platinum points, and when there is sparking at this point it indicates that the condenser is out of order. When suspecting trouble with the coil one should always listen for the buzz of the vibrator when turning the engine over.

510. If it vibrates strongly at every make the trouble must be looked for in the secondary circuit, possibly in the spark plug. Remove the plug and lay it on some bright

metal part of the engine with the high tension wire attached to its binding post and turn the engine over until the circuit breaker makes the contact, then there should be a buzzing of the vibrator and a stream of sparks between the points on the plug. A short circuit should be looked for, either about the spark plug or along the high tension wire.

511. Sometimes if the high tension wire hangs near the earth the current will jump through the insulation to reach the ground. Any moisture about the plug is likely to cause a short circuit. The plug should be thoroughly cleaned and show a good spark at the terminal point before it is screwed in place again.
512. When the vibrator fails to buzz either the adjusting screw is set up too close or there is something wrong with the primary circuit or the current is too weak. There are a number of points in the primary circuit that may get out of order, especially about the circuit breaker.
513. The set screw holding the contact points to the revolving shaft may get loose or the springs supplying the contact tension may get weak or loose. The vibrator and circuit breaker points should be kept clean. It is always well to be sure that there is a good contact at the circuit breaker. The adjusting screw should be so set to the vibrator

as to cause it to vibrate at the highest speed. This can be determined by the rapidity of the vibrating sounds heard.

514. The power of the engine is largely dependent on the cylinder COMPRESSION, mixture and spark being in good condition. Consequently the compression is an important guide. Compression depends on good acting cylinder rings, good valves and a tight cylinder in general.
515. If the engine loses its compression and turns easy over the compression stroke look out for leaks either through the piston rings, valves or sparker parts. A leak can usually be detected by having some one turn the engine onto the compression slowly while the operator has his ear near the point of suspected leak. A hissing or blowing sound will be heard when the compressed air is escaping. After locating the point of lost compression the remedy ought to be apparent to any one.
516. If the valve, either exhaust or inlet, is leaking, determine whether it leaks because of a dirty or corroded seat, or whether the valve pallet or seat is cracked. If the loss is by the rings it will be necessary to determine whether one or more of them are broken or whether they are stuck in their grooves because of dirt accumulations from burnt lubricating oil.
517. Improperly timed valves will often affect

the compression and cause loss of power. The springs of the exhaust or inlet valves may be too weak to bring the valves properly to their seats.

518. Improperly fitted rings or an imperfect cylinder or piston may be the cause of loss of compression in a new engine. A gasket, packing a joint between the cylinder and outside, may be partially blown out.

519. Explosions in the muffler are caused by unfired charges accumulating in the muffler due usually to faulty ignition or mixtures. Weak mixtures and late ignition are generally the cause of firing back through the inlet passages. If an engine starts all right but begins to miss fire as soon as it gets to full speed suspect loose wire connection or short circuit made worse by the vibrations of the engine under full speed. A weak battery also should be suspected. The battery will gain strength enough when standing to start the engine but a few moments' run will exhaust it.

520. If an engine slows down after running a while when firing its charges regularly look for an overheated piston or a hot box. Whatever is done it pays to look carefully after lubrication and radiation or cooling of the cylinder.

521. Premature explosions are caused by overheated cylinders, over advance of the igniter, too high compression, heated projec-

tions in the igniting chamber and deposits of burnt carbon.

522. Trouble, in getting power from a two-cycle engine and running it successfully, often arises on account of a leak from the crank case which should always be kept thoroughly packed so as to be absolutely compression tight, otherwise trouble is bound to occur.
523. Crank case explosions are often met with in the two-cycle and are very annoying. They are due generally to too light compression in the crank case, to prevent the flame in the cylinder returning through the bypass. A bypass throttle, a screen in the bypass or increasing crank case compression are the remedies to overcome this trouble.
524. A weak mixture or a late explosion causes slower burning and consequently higher pressure and a delayed flame in the cylinder when the inlet port from the bypass is uncovered by the piston, resulting in crank case explosions. Throttling the inlet between vaporizer and crank case often causes crank case explosions, which can be overcome when the engine is under full load by turning on more gasoline and advancing the spark.
525. When a gasoline engine, whether automobile, motor boat or commercial, will not run the operator is expected to do some-

thing to get it into operation in the shortest time possible.

Then some systematic plan of procedure to locate the trouble is quite desirable. Each operator should formulate some plan in his mind for this purpose. The following paragraphs are given as a sort of guide:

526. Determine first whether the ignition system is in good working order. If found good, test the compression. If it is found all right, is the carbureter working? *If carbureter is found in serviceable adjustment*, you may suspect and look for *water in gasoline*, tank empty, supply pipe broken or clogged, gasoline cock closed, broken exhaust or receiving valve springs, exhaust valve remains seated, broken valve stem, inlet manifold cracked or perforated, ignition out of time.
527. If carbureter is not working. It may be flooded, needle valve does not shut off gasoline, jet or feed pipe may be obstructed, floats may be too high or too heavy when replaced, float may be punctured, not enough gasoline in float chamber, balance levers may be broken or worn.
528. When we find no *Compression* the cause may be on the inside or on outside of the engine. If enclosed crank case engine there may be a broken crank shaft, connecting rod or a loose cam. The piston may be broken or punctured. There may be broken piston rings, or they may be turned so that their

slots are in line or they may be gummed and clogged up with burnt carbon. Water may be leaking into the cylinder through fire crack, sand hole or poor joints.

529. Outside of the engine we may find the causes for non-compression as follows: Dirty valve stems that cause the valves to stick, valve broken or valve seat cracked, valve spring broken or lost temper, crack in cylinder or explosion chamber, leak around the spark plug or spark mechanisms.
530. If the ignitor should not be working we may expect to find no spark at the end of the spark plug after unscrewing and testing it. Look for spark at trembler and if a spark is noted there the voltage for a storage battery may be insufficient if storage battery is in use. If dry battery is in use test the amperage. The trembler may be stuck or not properly set by trembler screw. There may be a break in the secondary wire or a leak between the coil or spark plug. The high tension wire may be letting out its current through its insulation into some wet or damp spot with which it is in contact or nearly so.
531. If there is no spark at trembler nor at spark plug the batteries should be suspected, replacing with new ones will determine whether the batteries are exhausted. Timer may have gotten loose or misplaced. There may be a short circuit in the primary coil. Sometimes the trembler gets dirty or gummy.

532. Sometimes a spark is noticed at the outer end of the spark plug. Look for dampness or water on the outer end. It may be broken, causing short circuit. The battery voltage may be too weak to make the leap between the points. The points may be too far apart. Dirt or moisture on the outer end.
533. When a magneto is supplying the current and the engine will not run and suspicion points strongly to the magneto, after testing the spark plug and you find a spark, determine whether the magneto is in time. See if it is properly connected up or properly wired.
534. If no spark can be had at the spark plug examine the carbon brushes on the magneto. Wires may be attached to the wrong terminals or not at all. There may be no contact. Make and break may be damaged or set out of time. A broken wire. Contacts may be dirty or loose or badly worn down. Poor insulation in plug or in the wiper or in their connections.
535. If the engine runs for a few revolutions or for five minutes and then stops and can not be kept going for any length of time, one may suspect water in the cylinder, a frozen up and choked inlet passage, too much oil in the crank case, poor water or cooling circulation due to lack of water in the radiator, a clogged condition of the pipes, or pump insufficiency if a pump is used.
536. The carbureter may not be properly ad-

justed so as to admit the fuel properly or the float may be stuck. There may also be a clogged muffler or choked exhaust. In some types of magnetos look for loosened platinum contact points.

PART VIII.

537. The rim velocity of an engine fly-wheel should not exceed 5,000 feet per minute. There is danger of bursting the wheel from centrifugal force above this speed.
538. The feet travel of the rim is determined by multiplying the circumference of the wheel, in feet, by the number of revolutions it makes in one minute.
539. By heat efficiency or thermal efficiency is meant that portion of heat generated in the cylinder of the gas motor which is actually converted into power for driving machinery. A good motor should have about 32 per cent heat efficiency.
540. By mechanical efficiency is meant the ratio between the useful work performed by the engine and the energy actually expended in producing it. It should be about 85 per cent.
541. There are $7\frac{1}{2}$ gallons in a cubic foot of water, and it weighs 62.4 lbs., or 8.3 lbs. per gallon. 74° gasoline weighs 5.96 pounds per gallon and has a specific gravity of .72.

542. The work necessary to raise a *one pound weight* one foot high is known as a foot-pound. There are 33,000 foot-pounds in a horse-power. Then the energy required to raise 33,000 pounds one foot high represents one horse-power.
543. The amount of heat necessary to raise the temperature of one pound of water from a temperature of 39 degrees Fahrenheit to 40 degrees, or to raise the temperature one degree, is designated as a British Thermal Unit, the symbol of which is B. T. U.
544. A B. T. U. has an energy equivalent to 778 foot-pounds; therefore 42.4 B. T. U. equal one horse-power.
545. The number of feet the piston travels in a minute is known as piston speed or piston travel. This should not exceed 1,000 feet per minute.

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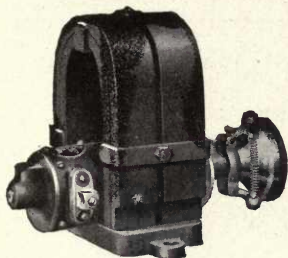
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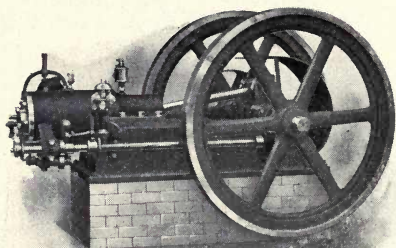


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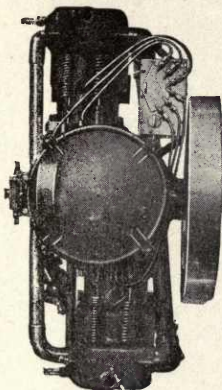
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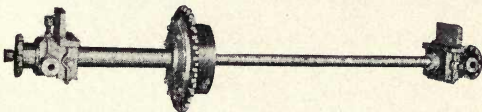
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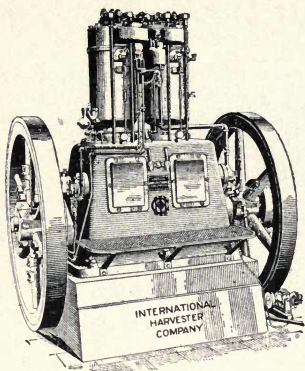
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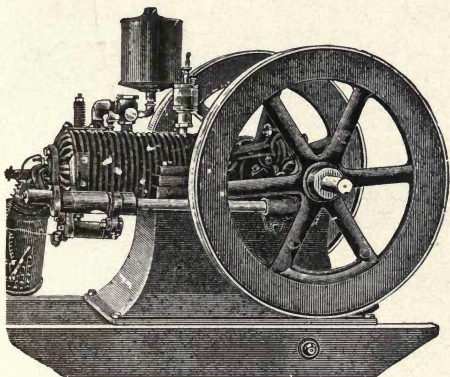
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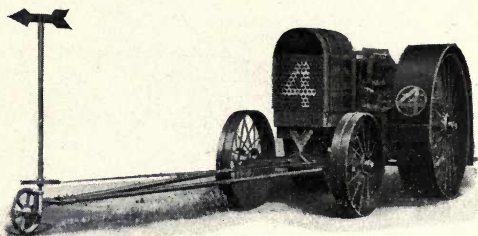
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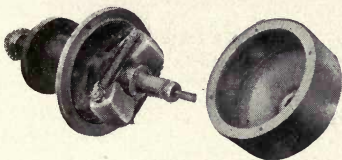
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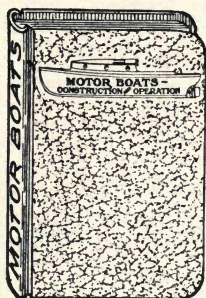
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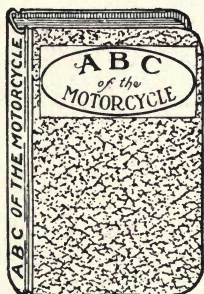
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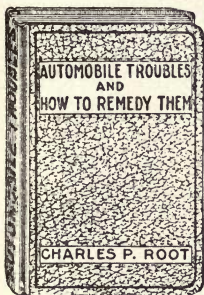
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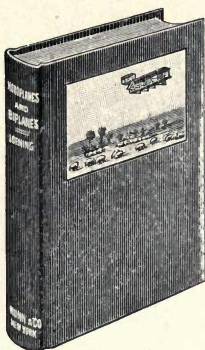
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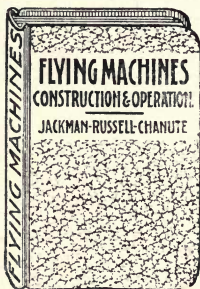
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